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ABSTRACT

This paper attempts to furnish background information on, problem analysis of, and recommendations for developing programs for out of school youth in less developed countries. The paper defines important factors contributing to the general situation of out of school youth in these countries. Out of school youth include those who have no access to education, those who dropped out before completing an expected level of schooling, and those who completed a certain stage (such as primary) but did not continue into the following stage. The factors affecting those youth were identified from literature, research, project experience and reports, practitioner input, and personal observation. Programmatic responses to employment, access to education and training resources, and participation needs of out of school youth are reviewed. The relationships between out of school youth characteristics, needs, current responses, and trends for the future are analyzed. The final section of the paper presents recommendations for programming and research assistance for projects for out of school youth. Tables of data are included. (Author/MK)

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CHARACTERISTICS AND NEEDS OF OUT-OF-SCHOOL YOUTH

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ABSTRACT

Although the provision of education and training programs for out-of-school youth is a priority concern for many countries, the numbers of youth being reached by such programs remains a fraction of the possible clientele. Out-of-school youth include three main categories: those who have had no access to schooling; those who dropped out without completing a specified or expected level of schooling; and those who completed a certain stage, such as primary, but who have not continued onto the following stage.

This paper contains a definition of important factors contributing to the general situation of out-of-school youth in less developed countries. The definition is drawn from literature, research, project experiences and reports, practitioner input, and personal observation. As the adolescent years are considered of prime importance for individual development and the integration of the individual into society, the preparation of youth in life and work skills is seen as contributing to their employability and enhancing their abilities to be more productive members of society.

In reviewing programmatic responses to employment, access to education and training resources and participation needs of out-of-school youth, an analysis is presented which explores the relationships between target population characteristics, needs, current responses and assumed trends for the future.

In concluding, the paper presents recommendations for priority considerations for USAID programming and research in the area of assistance for projects for out-of-school youth.

PART I

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY, APPROACH AND PRIOR ASSUMPTIONS

This paper is meant to furnish DS/ED with background information, problem analysis, and priority recommendations for the design of "NFE and Out-of-School Youth Project" (931-1241). More specifically, the paper contains a definition of important factors to be considered in understanding the situation of out-of-school youth in less developed countries. This definition is drawn from an extensive review of the literature on out-of-school youth, from the experiences of practitioners in the field and from the experiences of the authors in their work in development, education, literacy and vocational guidance programs for youth in developing countries. Reference is made to the effects of the out-of-school youth situation on individual societies, the development process and on youth themselves.

The adolescent years are assumed to be a time of prime importance for individual development and the integration of the individual into society. In addition, the preparation of youth in life and work skills is assumed to contribute to their employability and enhance their possible contributions to national development. This study also assumes that successful models do exist for such training and that the training youth receive can contribute to general country development in the long run.

In Part II of the study, a description of the important char-

acteristics which distinguish different groups of out-of-school youth is offered. Included in these characteristics are age, level of education, sex, mobility and origin or place of residence.

Part III of the study contains a description of programmatic responses to needs of out-of-school youth. Included in this discussion is an examination of needs related to employment and job preparation in the traditional and modern sectors as well as the emerging informal sector; the needs for literacy, scientific understanding, and other opportunity structures; and needs related to family life and participation. An analysis is included which explores the relationships between target population characteristics, needs, current responses to the problems and needs, and assumed trends for the future.

One assumption underlying the above objectives is that most programs for out-of-school youth are too narrowly conceived. Access is often limited to those with prior training/formal schooling, is predominantly for males, and has been conducted outside the community context with a bias toward the modern sector. A second assumption is that entrepreneurial skills development and on-the-job training coupled with opportunities and skills for problem solving in the community will increase the likelihood of long term employment prospects which will be beneficial to the individual, the community and the nation. An extensive review of projects, both past and ongoing, would tend to substantiate both of the foregoing assumptions. In general, the more successful projects were those which tended to address narrow conceptions of skill training and to relate skill acquisition with immediate activity.

Recommendations for priority considerations for USAID programming and research presented in Part IV of the study are made on the basis of the above mentioned objectives and assumptions as well as an examination of current programmatic responses to the needs of out-of-school youth.

PART II

CHARACTERISTICS OF OUT-OF-SCHOOL YOUTH: STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM AND STATISTICAL DIMENSIONS

A. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Twenty five years ago, the contributions of youth to development were thought to be best channeled through the formal school system. By narrowly focusing on the problems of youth and their aspirations, planners and educators felt that the situation could be remedied. With the past two decades has come the realization that both the problems of development and those of youth in the developing world must be viewed in a much broader economic, social and cultural perspective. Neither youth nor development can be viewed as problems apart but are rather seen as forces for change within society.

Numbers alone indicate that youth are a group with which development and educational planners must reckon. In some instances, the youth population under 25 represents more than 50% of the total population, and those youth who are out-of-school comprise a large percentage; a number which is continually on the rise. In the period between 1975 and 1985, it is projected that the LDC out-of-school youth population in the 6 to 11 age group will increase by 9 million (7%) while the 12 to 17 age group will increase by some 24 million (14%).

Although impressive, the expansion of the formal school system in the past two decades has been unable to keep pace with the

numbers of young people in developing countries demanding access to educational and training opportunities. Nor has formal education been able to keep pace with the wide range of educational inputs necessary for development. With its already restricted and strained budgets, it is unrealistic to think that the formal system will be able to meet the needs of a youth population which will increase substantially by the year 2000.

Today, youth are being "left out" by the formal school system in large numbers. In 1975, only 62% of the 6 to 11 age group was enrolled in the developing countries. Of the 12 to 17 age group, 35% were enrolled while only 8.7% of the 18 to 23 age group were in school.

Those who do enroll and complete school are pitted against the uneducated and the undereducated in their search for employment, in their search for control over scarce resources and in their attempts to preserve their status in societies in change. Those already favored by the educational system are often the recipients of additional training, and their education gives them access to information and resources which are often the keys to bettering one's life.

When increased population growth is coupled with poverty, unemployment, rural-urban migration, overcrowded urban centers and persistant inequities in allocation of scarce resources, the significantly high proportion of young people in the total population becomes an area for priority consideration by planners, governments and assistance granting organizations. In particular, the out-of-school youth segment of that population deserves special consideration for many contend that the preparation of youth in life skills and attitudes will

enhance their contribution to development, both on a personal level and on the national level.

A great amount of stress in our societies is seen among youth in general, and more particularly among out-of-school youth. The use of the term youth in itself implies a grouping which lacks homogeneity; a grouping with problems and needs which are as diverse as the settings in which they exist.

But, the grouping is not without common denominators, the greatest of them being that youth represent a segment of the population whose problems and needs center around the word or concept of transition. That is, transition from social, economic and cultural roles and responsibilities of "youth" to those of the adult: the provider, the parent, the citizen, the community member and the participant in national development.

The problems associated with transition should not be viewed in only social, economic and cultural contexts. Equally important is the psychological transition through which all young adults pass and the impact of that passage upon them. The problem of transition is not the same for each youth: individual needs will dictate specific actions and reactions to the expressed and latent aspirations of a society for its youth.

Many of the issues central to youth concern the adequacy of institutions and structures--family, community, educational, occupational, recreational and governmental--within a given society in facilitating transition. It is upon that degree of facilitation that other aspects of the youth situation hinge. Youth's first encounters

with the morass of social and educational institutions generate much concern among youth and the adults around them.

Changes are occuring in family structure. In some countries, young people are leaving home earlier and in greater numbers in their yearning for independence. For example, 1972 statistics for Kenya show a yearly growth rate for Nairobi of some 10% while the growth rate for the country as a whole was 3%. Much of this influx into the city can be attributed to the migration of rural youth between the ages of 16 and 24.

Traditional community structures are breaking down as they try to adapt to the demands of technical and economical development. Youth are often eager for change and have needs for "assisting" in changing the structures which they feel are outdated and inefficient.

In other areas, institutions, customs and economic conditions have changed so that young people are actually starting work later in life than did their parents. At the same time, they are denied the rights and responsibilities of adulthood.

A generation gap has occurred and youth have become a distinct community. "Youth in the world today have a determination to win from society that status and esteem it deems to be its rights."[1] Demands for this status are being witnessed in the universities of Thailand and South Africa, in the factories and villages of St. Lucia, and in institutions designed for youth but usually run by adults as in Barbados and Ghana. Adults persist in their tendency to regard youth as "awaiting admission into society," but until they become adults they have no claim on rights. In essence, this generation gap

has become one of more than age, it has become one which is moral in nature as well as intellectual.

There is also a gap between the expectations of parents and children. Parents have been pulled off balance as their expectations differ widely from those of their children, a factor which would seem to be tied to the myth of what education has to offer.

In addition to those aspects of the out-of-school youth situations already mentioned, there are economic aspects which derive from the historic association of the problems of youth with employment, unemployment and underemployment. These aspects of the problem also arise from the conflict between the modern and traditional sectors and their close association with distinct geographical areas and accompanying social systems. Additional economic aspects grow out of the inability of the labor market to create new jobs as well as the inability of the formal school system to adequately prepare youth for entry into the labor force.

The numbers of unemployed out-of-school youth testify to the above. For the 15 to 25 age group, the unemployment rates range from 82% in Sri Lanka, 80% in Mauritius, 72% in Kenya, and an overall rate of some 50% in the Caribbean region. As awesome as they may be, these statistics mask yet greater disparities between rural and urban areas and between males and females in the labor force.

It is these disparities which contribute to the continued discrimination against certain groups within the out-of-school population: young women, rural youth in general and the illiterate. Women in developing countries comprise, in many instances, a significantly low

proportion of those in school: 10% in Upper Volta and 35% in Mali.

The illiterate comprise an equally disadvantaged group. It is projected that by 1985, only one half of the children in developing countries will be in school and have the opportunity to acquire basic literacy skills. And, when this figure is combined with the estimation that over 90% of the youth in the developing world live in rural areas, one can begin to see the magnitude of the problem which lies ahead for rural development.

Above all, the situation of out-of-school youth should be seen as both a political problem and a development problem. In the case of the latter, there is a need to change the overall picture rather than deal with only one specific aspect of it. With the former, the training of youth, and more particularly out-of-school youth, must be seen as an ideological process, one which demands the existence of political resolve on the part of the governments involved.

The literature speaks of feelings of alienation and manipulation on the part of youth. Many of the organizations working with youth have come to be viewed as institutions which try to enforce their own ideas and principles onto youth rather than permitting youth the opportunity of creating their own institutions and personalities. Youth's rebellion is many times seen as a reaction to institutional inability to adapt to changes--societal, political, economical--as well as being a symptom of their anxiety with a system that does not appear to be responsive to their needs.

B. STATISTICAL DIMENSIONS

1. A Global View

In the past decade an increasing focus has been placed on the growing youth population. International organizations and governments have become alarmed at the implications of such statistics:

> The demographic change was foreseen long ago but not everyone was prepared for it. Unpreparedness explains the contradiction, the tensions, and the shocks that we are witnessing as youth move en masse into present day society and try to reshape it.[2]

The rapid increase in world population has resulted in a world population which is predominately young. In the light of recent projections, it is estimated that the numbers in the 15-24 age group will rise from 519 million to 1,128 million in the 40 year period from 1960-2000. Today, over three quarters of this age group are in the developing countries: 59 million in Africa, 322 million in Asia, and 44 million in Latin America.

The table below, compiled from UN statistics, shows data substantiating this increase:

TABLE I

GROWTH OF WORLD SCHOOL AGE POPULATION BY REGIONS: 1960-2000

Major Regions	(1960 = 100) 1960	1975	1985	2000
World Total				
Age group 5-14	100	152	159	195
Age group 15-19	100	146	169	225
Africa				
Age group 5-14	100	148	201	307
Age group 15-19	100	151	195	316
Asia				
Age group 5-14	100	137	167	196
Age group 15-19	100	142	173	227
Latin America				
Age group 5-14	100	153	195	269
Age group 15-19	100	164	211	306

Source: Compiled by ICED from data provided in Unesco Statistical Yearbooks, based on UN estimates and "medium variant" projections. These figures do not reflect the 1979 UN projections. ICED, "A Preview of Some Initial General Findings of the Future of the World Educational Crisis," Working Paper Number 7, 1979 (mimeographed). Reproduced with permission from ICED.

Various age groupings have been used to classify "youth" in the literature reviewed. For the purpose of this paper, the 12-25 age group was chosen as a starting point towards identification of this group. The meaning of "youth" in terms of age varies from place to place, author to author and could well vary within a country over a period of time as societies undergo rapid change.

Disaggregating data such as that presented in the table above into more meaningful categories is useful in order to obtain a clearer picture of the situation. For the purposes of this study some of the data is presented by country and region, especially in instances

where countries within a region share similar geographical/language/ economic factors.

Data for the out-of-school youth population is also presented in an educational profile; by place of residence--rural and urban; by employment; and through what the authors have chosen to call a biological profile.

2. The Out-Of-School Population

Unesco[3] has defined the out-of-school youth population as comprising five main categories.

--Those who have never entered school: youth who have not attended school mainly because opportunities were not available. In some cases, there were not enough places in schools in their areas while in other instances places were available but families could not afford to send their children to school. Also, in places where parents feel alienated from the schools it is unlikely that their children will attend.

--Those who have entered primary education but have dropped out before completing the level: this category is comprised of those children/youth who leave school due to failure to pass from one grade to another, those withdrawn by their parents, or those who become disillusioned with school and drift from absence into dropout.

--Those who have completed primary education but who have not entered secondary school: many in this category are children whose parents regard basic literacy and numeracy as sufficient education. Or, in some areas, primary education may offer a young person an opportunity to be gainfully employed. An additional reason is that places in secondary education are not available.

--Those who have entered secondary education but have dropped out before completing this level: many of the same reasons mentioned for young people not completing primary school also apply here. Of particular note in this instance is that youth in this age group/educational level are often needed at home for economic reasons.

--Those who have completed secondary education, but who have not entered higher education: this group includes youth who

have not been able or have not wanted to enter higher education, and who may seek additional non-academic training or full or part time employment.

Several factors need to be considered when examining statistics for an out-of-school youth population. Among these are percentages versus absolute numbers; total increase in school enrollments; dropout and retention rates; and the age grouping under consideration. As is shown in the following table, Unesco limits its examination to the 6-17 year old out-of-school age group. Such a narrow view excludes, it would seem, that substantial portion of the out-of-school youth population between the ages of 17 and 24.

TABLE II

OUT-OF-SCHOOL YOUTH BY REGIONS: BOTH SEXES (MILLIONS)

REGION	Age-group 6-11			Age-group 12-17		
	1965	1975	1985	1965	1975	1985
M D R	9	7	7	23	19	12
L D R	110	121	130	139	173	197
Africa	30	32	34	32	37	41
Latin America	14	11	9	18	19	19
East Asia	0.5	0.1	0.1	5	3	1
South Asia	66	77	86	88	115	137

Source: Unesco, "Development of School Enrollment: World & Regional Statistical Trends and Projections 1960-2000," Conference Report, Paris: July, 1977, p. 35.

The statistics presented in Table II show a gradual increase in out-of-school youth in developing countries from 249 million in 1965 to a projected 327 million in 1985. While the table shows a 28%

increase in the 12-17 age cohort in general for the developing countries during the twenty year period, the percentage of increase for the age group in South Asia is 56% for the same period.

Projections show that if education trends continue, the percentage of out-of-school youth in the 13-18 year old group will actually decline from 76% in 1970 to 72% in 1980. However, due to the rapid population growth this reduction in percentage would nevertheless imply an increase in the absolute number of out-of-school youth in this age group from 109 million in 1970 to 132 million in 1980.[4]

In taking a closer look at the Asia region, we find that in 1960 59% of the out-of-school youth aged 6-12 and 53% aged 13-18 were girls. In 1970 the corresponding percentages were 62% and 54%.[5] Country specific statistics on the out-of-school youth population show that India, Bangladesh, and Pakistan will have approximately 75% of their 13-18 year age group in the out-of-school group in 1980.

3. Educational Profile Of Out-Of-School Youth

In discussing the educational profile of the out-of-school youth this study addresses: enrollment in formal schools (primary, secondary and tertiary); literacy rates; and participation in non-formal education activities.

a. Enrollment

Before taking a look at the statistics it is worth noting the following weaknesses in gathering data on school enrollments as the out-of-school youth group is often larger than official statistics on school enrollment reveal. Weaknesses include problems deriving from:

--Basic data collected from local sources and schools is difficult to amass and their accuracy may be doubtful. Often a school is judged or rated on the amount of pupils they have enrolled at any given level.

--Enrollment and age ratios are often inflated by numbers of enrolled pupils who are actually older than the normative age. Statistics in Table IV reveal that to be common.

--National ratios conceal disparities between rural and urban areas. Rural enrollment rates are usually substantially lower while drop out and repetition rates are higher. For example, in Colombia in 1965 for every 1000 students in grade 4, 18% of the urban youth either dropped out or repeated while 52% of their rural counterparts followed the same action.[6]

--Enrollment ratios bear little relation to school completion rates. A large percentage of boys and girls will drop out and never get more than 1, 2 or 3 years of schooling, and that might be combined with sporadic attendance rates.

--Enrollment rates tell nothing of the quality of education. Education in rural areas tends to be of a lower quality than in urban areas: rural areas are plagued with erratic attendance, overcrowded classes, lack of learning materials, poor teaching, poor diet and health and lack of motivation or interest on the part of the parents.

With those weaknesses and shortcomings in mind, it is instructive to look at the following enrollment ratios as offered by Unesco in the report of the 1977 International Conference on Education.

TABLE III

ENROLLMENT RATIOS BY AGE-GROUP AND REGION: BOTH SEXES

REGION	Age-group 6-11			Age-group 12-17			Age-group 18-23		
	1965	1975	1985	1965	1975	1985	1965	1975	1985
M D R	92	94	94	79	84	89	24.6	30.0	35.9
L D R	54	62	68	28	35	42	5.0	8.7	12.1
Africa	40	51	61	22	31	42	2.7	5.8	9.4
Latin America	65	78	86	43	57	67	9.1	19.7	29.5
East Asia	97	99	100	73	83	92	11.2	19.8	28.5
South Asia	56	61	66	26	31	36	5.0	6.9	8.6
25 LDC	19	28	39	12	17	26	1.1	2.7	5.0
Sahel Countries	15	19	26	9	13	18	1.1	2.6	3.7

Source: Unesco, "Development of School Enrollment: World and Regional Statistical Trends and Projections, 1960-2000," Conference Report. Paris: Unesco, 1977, p. 16.

The region wide data in Table III above provides a backdrop for looking at sub-regional and country specific statistics. In Table IV, it is interesting to note the similarities and differences within and between sub-regions and countries (see next page).

The disparities in enrollment ratios between different countries point to a correspondingly large diversity in educational development at the country level. This is due, in part, to individual country expenditures, existence of educational infrastructure at the time of independence, and general interest in universal primary education.

In some regions like Latin America, for example, educational systems have a longer history of existence and have thus been able to offer more educational opportunities to their youth. The high rate of growth in the area of tertiary education in almost every country seems to point to the demand for manpower training.

TABLE IV

GROWTH RATE AND ENROLLMENT STATISTICS: SELECTED COUNTRIES

Region/Country	Annual Growth Rate in Population (1970-75)	Primary Level Enrollment Ratio by Year	Primary Level Growth Rate by Year	Secondary Level Enrollment Ratio by Year	Secondary Level Growth Rate by Year	Third Level Enrollment Ratio by Year	Third Level Growth Rate by Year
SOUTHERN AFRICA							
Lesotho	2.2	121 in 6-12 age group (75)	2.56 (65-75)	14 in 13-17 age group (74)	14.93 (65-74)	.60 in 20-24 age group (74)	3.41 (65-74)
Swaziland	3.2	101 in 6-12 age group (75)	3.36 (65-75)	11 in 13-17 age group (74)	15.22 (65-75)	1.72 in 20-24 age group (75)	33.87 (70-75)
Botswana	1.9	85 in 6-12 age group (75)	4.26 (65-75)	16 in 13-17 age group (75)	18.22 (65-75)	.54 in 20-24 age group (75)	NA
WEST AFRICA							
Mali	2.5	22 in 6-14 age group (74)	3.60 (65-74)	3 in 15-17 age group (74)	12.98 (65-74)	.50 in 20-24 age group (74)	32.40 (65-74)
Upper Volta	2.3	14 in 6-11 age group (74)	1.73 (65-74)	2 in 12-18 age group (74)	8.01 (65-74)	.15 in 20-25 age group (74)	35.11 (65-74)
Niger	2.7	17 in 7-13 age group (74)	4.95 (65-74)	2 in 13-19 age group (74)	8.01 (65-74)	.09 in 20-24 age group (74)	28.57 (73-74)
EAST AFRICA							
Kenya	3.3	109 in 6-11 age group (75)	7.28 (65-75)	13 in 12-17 age group (75)	12.51 (65-75)	1.02 in 20-28 age group (74)	15.45 (65-74)
Uganda	3.3	53 in 6-12 age group (75)	-2.32 (65-75)	6 in 13-18 age group (75)	4.14 (65-75)	.55 in 20-24 age group (75)	7.18 (65-75)
Tanzania	2.7	97 in 7-13 age group (75)	5.00 (65-75)	3 in 14-19 age group (75)	4.14 (65-75)	.23 in 20-24 age group (75)	16.49 (65-75)
CARIBBEAN *							
Guyana	1.9	114 (73)	.33 (65-74)	55 (73)	1.98 (65-73)	3.44 (73)	21.30 (65-73)
CENTRAL AMERICA							
Honduras	2.7	89 (75)	1.07 (65-75)	13 (75)	2.66 (65-75)	4.79 (74)	12.43 (65-74)
El Salvador	2.7	71 (74)	-1.89 (65-74)	17 (74)	1.40 (65-74)	3.69 (74)	8.23 (65-74)
Guatemala	3.0	58 (70)	3.01 (65-70)	11 (70)	6.58 (65-70)	4.22 (75)	6.49 (65-75)
ANDEAN SOUTH AMERICA							
Ecuador	3.5	102 (75)	1.15 (65-75)	38 (75)	8.38 (65-75)	7.66 (70)	13.34 (65-70)
Peru	2.9	111 (75)	1.15 (65-75)	46 (75)	4.72 (65-75)	14.41 (75)	5.96 (65-75)
Bolivia	2.7	74 (74)	.15 (65-74)	21 (70)	3.13 (65-70)	10.13 (75)	8.21 (65-75)
SOUTH ASIA							
Bangladesh	2.0	73 in 5-9 age group (75)	4.07 (65-75)	25 in 10-14 age group (75)	6.76 (65-75)	2.92 in 20-25 age group (74)	16.13 (65-74)
India	2.1	65 in 5-10 age group (75)	1.32 (65-75)	29 in 11-16 age group (75)	-2.41 (65-75)	4.45 in 20-24 age group (74)	6.43 (65-74)
Pakistan	3.0	59 in 5-9 age group (75)	2.46 (65-75)	15 in 10-16 age group (75)	2.51 (65-74)	2.50 in 20-25 age group (70)	7.27 (65-70)

*Jamaica and St. Lucia not available.

Source: Compiled from AID data, 1978.

As can be noted, Table IV masks the large disparities between rural and urban areas within each country and the high ratios of males to females in the schools.

Specific statistics on vocational and technical school enrollments for the 13-18 year age group in selected Asian countries have been taken from Beyond School Walls,[7] and reveal the following. In 1971, Indonesia's vocational and technical school population comprised 34.8% of the 13-18 age group, with most students attending commercial and technical schools. In 1972, Malaysia had 3.7% of the same age group in vocational and technical schools, while the Philippines (1970) and Thailand (1972) reported percentages of 10.2 and 3.3, respectively.

As was pointed out earlier, enrollment ratios or participation rates at any level mean little unless drop-out and retention rates are taken into consideration. Although only an approximate estimation is possible, Unesco data[8] suggest that, of the pupils enrolled in grade 1 or primary education in 1965 and 1970, only about 50% and 54%, respectively, reached grade four.

For Africa, the percentage reaching grade 4 was 61% for the 1965 cohort and 72% for the 1970 cohort. Rates for the same years for Latin America were 44% and 47%, and 49% and 52% for South Asia. The retention rate was somewhat higher in 1970 than in 1965 and was slightly higher for boys than for girls.

A further factor of education wastage in the LDC's is the high rate of repetition. It has been estimated that the number of children of primary school age admitted to school in these regions in 1970 could have been increased by some 15-20% without increasing costs

had there been no repetition.

The following table presents statistical data on the drop-out situation in selected African and Latin American countries.

TABLE V

DROP-OUT RATES AT THE FIRST LEVEL IN SELECTED DEVELOPING COUNTRIES[1]

Country	*No. of Years in Period*[2]	*No. of Years in First Level*	*Over-all Drop-out Rate*		
			Total %	*Male* %	*Female* %
Africa					
Algeria	1963–67	6	62.9	60 6	70.2
Botswana	1966–67	7	71.2	61.6	77.3
Burundi	1966–67	6	59.8	56.1	68.3
Chad	1965–68	6	81.3	NA	NA
Libya	1965–66	6	54.5	46.7	72.3
Mali	1962–67	5	27.9	NA	NA
Morocco	1963–67	5	43.9	NA	NA
Togo	1967–68	6	34.7	28.6	47.8
Upper Volta	1963–67	6	55.1	53.3	58.9
Latin America					
Bolivia	1963–68	6	80.0	NA	NA
Ecuador	1961–67	6	62.8	61.7	64.2
Guatemala	1962–68	6	74.7	75.1	74.3
Honduras	1963–68	6	82.0	NA	NA
Paraguay	1963–68	6	68.4	68.4	68.4

NOTE: The drop-out rates in this table for different countries are not strictly comparable because of the differences in systems of recording and reporting demographic and enrolment statistics and varying grade-spans for first-level education.

[1] Drop-out rate has been calculated by following a cohort of first graders to the end of the cycle and counting as drop-outs all who have left school without completing the cycle.

Sources: UNESCO Office of Statistics, "The Statistical Measurement of Educational Wastage—Drop-out, Repetition and School Retardation," (mimeographed) prepared for the International Conference on Education, 32nd Session, Geneva, 1–9 July 1970 (Paris: June 24, 1970), Appendix E. Some, but not all of the statistical material, is also presented in UNESCO Office of Statistics, *A Statistical Study of Wastage at School* (Paris and Geneva: UNESCO/IBE, 1972). For Bolivia and Honduras the source is: Organization of American States, *America en Cifras–Situacion Cultural: Educacion y Otros Aspectos Culturales* (Washington, D.C., 1971), Table 501–40 , as found in Coombs, New Paths, pp. 33–35

Statistics for Asia[9] reveal that for India and Pakistan, only

25% of those who enter first grade will complete fifth grade, while in Bangladesh only 20% are survivors.

b. Literacy Rates

A second factor in examining the educational profile of out-of-school youth is the literacy rate for particular countries and regions. Discrepancies in definitions and measurements of literacy need to be taken into consideration when examining the data in Table VI. Whereas one country may use the ability to write one's name as a measure of literacy another may specify a level of literacy equivalent to four years of elementary schooling.

In terms of the number of illiterates aged 15 and over, Middle South Asia accounted for 38.6% of the world total in 1970, and will account for 43.5% in 1990. Asia as a whole had 72% of the world's illiterates in 1970. That figure will have increased to 74% by 1990. The respective figures for Africa are 18.7% and 19% and 6.1% and 4.5% for Latin America. In absolute numbers, this 20 year increase will mean that the figure will grow from 742 million illiterates in 1970, to 884 million by 1990. During the same period the number of literates will rise from 1,548 million to 2,560 million.[10] Statistics on illiteracy among the 15-19 year old age group in the specific sub-regions and countries used in tables in this section are included in Appendix I.

c. Participation In Out-Of-School Youth Programs

A third factor to consider when examining the educational profile of the out-of-school youth population is the number of youth

TABLE VI

ESTIMATES AND PERCENTAGE OF ILLITERACY 15+ BY SEX,
1970-1990, SELECTED COUNTRIES
(Numbers in parentheses= Total Illiterates in thousands)

	1970	1980	1990
SOUTHERN AFRICA			
Lesotho	37% (650.7)	31% (774.7)	19.5% (953.8)
M	50.5	42.5	25.7
F	25.5	20.0	13.5
Botswana	72.5 (323.9)	60.0 (437.4)	37.2 (576.4)
M	72.2	61.7	35.3
F	72.7	58.6	38.8
WEST AFRICA			
Mali	93.2 (2856.3)	89.9 (3581.4)	84.2 (4620.4)
M	86.8	81.4	73.3
F	99.5	98.2	94.9
Niger	95.9 (2173.1)	94.8 (2830.2)	89.9 (3763.5)
M	92.2	89.9	82.5
F	99.5	99.5	97.0
Upper Volta	95.4 (3077)	95.4 (3801.3)	93.3 (4850.4)
M	91.2	91.2	88.0
F	99.5	99.5	98.5
EAST AFRICA			
Kenya	68.6 (6095.2)	50.4 (8279.6)	30.8 (11606.8)
M	51.5	35.7	19.5
F	85.6	64.9	42.0
Uganda	66.2 (5494.1)	52.1 (7274.1)	43.2 (9879.4)
M	47.2	35.6	28.6
F	85.0	68.5	57.7
Tanzania	63.1 (7251.6)	52.5 (9613.5)	36.6 (13105.2)
M	47.5	38.3	24.3
F	78.2	66.1	48.5
CARIBBEAN			
Jamaica	16.8 (997.7)	11.3 (1241.4)	6.9 (1533.8)
M	18.5	11.8	6.9
F	15.3	10.9	7.2
Guyana	7.7 (371.4)	4.5 (528.8)	3.0 (704.1)
M	5.1	2.9	2.0
F	10.2	6.0	4.0
CENTRAL AMERICA			
El Salvador	43.6 (1846.9)	35.3 (2639.8)	27.0 (3703.6)
M	39.9	32.3	24.6
F	47.3	38.2	29.3
Guatemala	57.3 (2890.)	47.3 (3984.1)	36.3 (5463.8)
M	49.6	40.9	30.8
F	65.2	53.9	42.0
Honduras	44.2 (1375.7)	31.4 (1907.8)	21.5 (2742.8)
M	42.1	28.9	19.3
F	46.3	33.8	23.7

TABLE VI (continued)

	1970	1980	1990
ANDEAN LATIN AMERICA			
Bolivia	48.7 (2718.)	36.7 (3507.2)	25.6 (4586.1)
M	38.3	27.5	18.0
F	58.8	45.7	33.1
Peru	29.3 (7343.0)	18.5 (9984.)	10.9 (13725.4)
M	18.1	9.6	4.7
F	40.4	27.3	17.1
Ecuador	27.9 (3218.6)	18.7 (4560.2)	11.8 (6463.8)
M	23.8	15.3	9.3
F	32.0	22.0	14.3
SOUTH ASIA			
India	66.6 (312375.9)	59.7 (406958.7)	54.0 (530735.9)
M	53.2	48.7	45.6
F	81.1	71.6	63.1
Pakistan	76.7 (32467.4)	67.5 (44139.5)	55. (61556.1)
M	59.9	45.6	33.0
F	94.9	90.9	78.4
Bangladesh	71.2 (36275.8)	58.6 (46005.2)	46.5 (61535.3)
M	53.1	36.5	23.6
F	90.8	82.3	70.9

Source: Compiled from Unesco, Estimates and Projections of Illiteracy, 1978, pp. 83-110.

participating in non-formal education programs. The data is not encouraging. The authors of New Paths to Learning,[11] written in 1973, estimated that, at best, only 10% of the out-of-school youth in any given country were served by such programs. Another source suggests that the proportion of rural youth in organized out-of-school activities may be as low as 1.5%:

> Through regional conferences and staff missions of the Young World Food and Development Project of the FAO, it was possible to estimate that only 1.5 percent of rural youth, aged 12-25, were organized in out-of-school activities including

> youth groups. Between this survey in 1967 and the World Food Congress (1970), not much progress was made in organizing rural youth, so the Congress underlined the 'need for more massive systems of practical, informal and functional education programmes capable of reaching the large body of out-of-school youth.'[12]

Most non-formal education offerings accommodate only a few hundred youth in limited geographical areas. There are, however, a few programs which claim national coverage. A 1972 survey in Korea maintains that the Korean 4-H clubs' membership numbered 600,000 youths. In Upper Volta, in the same year, the rural education system claimed to have 20,000 youths involved at various levels of participation from full to part time. In 1968, ACPO, in Colombia, estimated that their mass media program had 167,000 listeners, 50% of whom were over 15. The Mobile Trades Training School program in Thailand claimed some 23,000 students in 1971.[13]

4. Urban and Rural Profiles Of Out-of-School Youth

According to a 1970 United Nations survey[14] about 19% of the total population of less developed countries were youth, defined as the age cohort from 15-24 years. Anywhere from 70-85% of the youth in these countries are estimated to be growing up in the rural areas. The percentage of out-of-school youth living in these areas/regions is hard to ascertain, but a figure in the same document[15] estimates that more than 90% of rural youth are out-of-school and a large majority of them are illiterate.

Statistics in Table VII reveal the number of youth in rural and urban areas by sex in specific countries. The data, as the reader will note, have not been broken down into school and out-of-school

categories.

5. Employment Profile

As with literacy statistics data for this category are difficult to generalize due to a lack of a uniform definition of "employment" or what is meant by "economically active." Many times, statistics do not take into account the contribution of women to the economic sector. In addition, the contributions of both males and females in the informal sector are often not included and/or are hard to measure.

According to a 1969 OECD survey[16] the "economically active" population for selected countries exhibits a wide range of ages: Libya's labor force is made up of anyone 6 years and over; El Salvador, Pakistan and Honduras state their economically active population as anyone 10 years old and over; and Chile and Ecuador measure their economically active population from 12 years of age. In the case of Morocco, exclusionary limits were placed on the labor statistics: female Muslims in the 15-64 age group were not included.

TABLE VII

RURAL AND URBAN RESIDENCE BY SEX

Region/Country, sex, date, and urban/rural residence	All Ages	Age (in years) 10-14	15-19	20-24
CARIBBEAN				
Guyana (1970)				
Urban	225,482	24,919	22,325	18,760
Male	108,857	12,607	11,020	9,400
Female	116,625	12,312	11,305	9,360
Rural	307,967	72,119	67,454	51,130
Male	141,607	36,242	34,209	25,752
Female	166,360	35,877	33,245	25,373
CENTRAL AMERICA				
Honduras (1974)				
Urban	332,179	113,834	103,339	84,708
Male	195,513	55,333	46,209	38,196
Female	137,666	57,,06	57,130	46,512
Rural	1,323,769	263,513	185,403	143,730
Male	721,794	131,096	93,560	70,265
Female	601,975	122,417	91,843	73,465
Guatemala (1973)				
Urban	1,378,191	243,307	219,514	187,208
Male	805,685	121,111	101,314	88,390
Female	972,506	122,196	117,700	98,918
Rural	2,232,030	434,353	340,765	283,064
Male	1,083,879	227,327	172,375	142,701
Female	1,148,151	207,526	167,390	140,363
El Salvador (1971)				
Urban	1,002,372	180,739	157,762	133,062
Male	555,555	89,551	74,317	62,733
Female	737,317	91,188	83,445	70,329
Rural	2,148,238	395,136	299,308	166,365
Male	1,095,563	147,760	120,148	83,736
Female	1,052,735	137,426	89,160	82,629
OCEAN LATIN AMERICA				
Peru (1972)				
Urban	5,116,000	1,012,000	887,000	745,000
Male	2,716,000	509,000	441,000	386,000
Female	2,400,000	503,000	446,000	359,000
Rural	4,766,000	982,000	866,000	632,000
Male	2,396,000	513,000	334,000	370,000
Female	2,369,000	433,000	322,000	262,000
Ecuador (1974)				
Urban	2,898,722	366,121	321,136	272,048
Male	1,395,321	178,697	163,387	125,900
Female	1,503,341	187,424	177,299	145,148
Rural	3,322,988	509,273	372,330	208,560
Male	1,963,332	266,300	195,349	158,126
Female	1,359,956	242,973	176,481	150,834
Bolivia (1972)				
Urban	1,024,300	237,300	206,500	180,500
Male	1,111,200	116,700	102,100	89,400
Female	1,013,600	120,600	104,400	91,200
Rural	3,809,000	423,000	368,100	321,900
Male	1,802,600	208,000	182,000	159,300
Female	1,206,400	215,000	186,100	162,600

Region/Country, sex, date, and urban/rural residence	All Ages	Age (in years) 10-14	15-19	20-24
SOUTH ASIA				
India (1977)				
Urban	132,924,000	12,124,000	16,331,000	14,117,000
Male	68,315,000	7,983,000	8,537,000	7,625,000
Female	64,109,000	8,141,000	7,794,000	6,492,000
Rural	492,394,000	60,852,000	49,868,000	40,830,000
Male	255,171,000	31,835,000	26,041,000	20,724,000
Female	237,723,000	29,017,000	23,827,000	20,106,000
Bangladesh (1974)				
Urban	5,249,359	722,686	531,573	444,112
Male	2,703,692	352,291	266,314	229,003
Female	2,545,667	370,395	265,259	215,109
Rural	69,741,496	9,119,375	7,525,363	6,277,339
Male	35,920,486	4,742,238	3,871,380	3,257,215
Female	33,821,010	4,337,638	3,713,983	3,114,624
Pakistan (1963)				
Urban	11,321,048	1,492,923	1,266,614	1,260,254
Male	6,513,446	800,735	602,506	808,219
Female	4,807,602	692,188	464,108	442,035
Rural	32,039,671	3,813,435	2,468,670	2,595,406
Male	16,946,526	1,931,910	1,308,285	1,359,395
Female	15,313,145	1,881,525	1,159,786	1,235,510
SOUTHERN AFRICA				
Lesotho (1972)				
Urban	14,733	5,201	4,447	4,084
Male	10,822	2,430	1,835	1,809
Female	11,166	2,771	2,612	2,855
Rural	922,262	104,023	91,674	79,795
Male	460,391	52,501	46,513	40,631
Female	461,281	51,502	45,166	39,164
Botswana (1971)				
Urban	58,705	5,892	6,169	6,444
Male	28,998	3,146	2,[illegible]	[illegible]
Female	29,[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
Rural	616,549	69,769	49,146	[illegible]
Male	[illegible]	34,[illegible]	23,330	[illegible]
Female	282,246	34,842	25,[illegible]	[illegible]
EAST AFRICA				
Tanzania (1967)				
Urban	603,620	48,346	68,165	69,222
Male	326,320	25,349	33,537	35,[illegible]
Female	276,300	23,497	31,573	33,507
Rural	11,348,313	1,172,970	994,309	827,436
Male	5,511,256	617,357	467,324	332,763
Female	5,837,057	555,613	527,085	494,672
Kenya (1969)				
Urban	1,079,908	93,643	112,252	142,252
Male	627,276	46,373	57,542	83,[illegible]
Female	452,632	46,770	54,710	58,460
Rural	9,862,737	1,294,372	992,747	795,359
Male	4,855,105	667,334	502,610	344,223
Female	5,007,692	617,038	490,137	391,536
Uganda (1969)				
Urban	732,354	65,019	83,732	95,326
Male	393,239	32,052	41,401	53,299
Female	334,815	32,957	42,332	42,557
Rural	8,315,993	1,031,463	747,480	624,768
Male	4,420,210	541,561	374,569	295,222
Female	4,395,783	489,302	372,911	339,746

Source: UN, Dept. of International Economics and Social Affairs, UN Demographic Yearbook, 1977, N.Y.: UN, 1978, pp. 224-242.

The following table illustrates regional differences in age-structure and labor force participation rates. The first three columns show the ratio between the population aged 6-11 and 15-64 while the last three columns show the ratio between the labor force and the population aged 15-64. The former indicates the size of the primary school population in relation to the working age population while the latter is influenced both by the age structure of the working population and by labor force participation rates by age. The data would seem to indicate the influence of school enrollment on the labor force and the projections for future employment trends.

TABLE VIII

AGE STRUCTURE AND LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATES: BOTH SEXES

REGION	Population aged 6-11 years / Population 15-64 years			Total labour force / Population 15-64 years		
	1965	1975	1985	1965	1975	1985
M D R	0.18	0.15	0.14	0.71	0.71	0.72
L D R	0.30	0.31	0.30	0.71	0.68	0.65
Africa	0.30	0.30	0.32	0.75	0.72	0.69
Latin America	0.31	0.30	0.28	0.60	0.58	0.57
South Asia	0.29	0.30	0.29	0.73	0.70	0.66

Source: Unesco, "Development of School Enrollment: World and Regional Statistical Trends and Projections, 1960-2000," Conference Report. Paris: Unesco, 1977, p. 48.

A second way to approach this concept is to examine unemployment statistics. In the following table, Caribbean unemployment rates are given with age groupings and comparisons with other classifications.

TABLE IX

Selected Unemployment Characteristics:

CARICOM Region* - 1970

		Unemployed (000's)			Unemployment Rate (%)		
		M	F	TOTAL	M	F	TOTAL
Total Labour Force		111.3	53.3	164.6	12.75	14.48	13.26
By Age	15-19	54.4	27.6	82.0	48.14	54.76	50.18
	20+	56.9	25.7	82.6	7.49	8.09	7.67
	MDC	104.6	48.5	153.1	13.79	15.60	14.32
	LDC	6.7	4.8	11.5	5.83	8.39	6.68
No Exam passed		101.0	45.8	146.8	13.33	15.92	14.05

*Exclusive of Antigua

Source: Official Statistics on Caricom from: Commonwealth Secretariat, The Young Unemployed: A Caribbean Problem, London: Commonwealth Secretariat, 1975, p. 68.

Looking specifically at statistics from St. Lucia, the government estimated in 1979 that the unemployment rate was 35% in the 15-25 year old age group. And, as will be shown in the next section, unemployment among females both young and old, is proportionately higher than their male counterparts in urban areas.

6. Biological Profile

The disparities existing between male and female youth have been addressed in four earlier tables: Table V (drop-out rate); Table VI (illiteracy); Table VII (urban/rural residence); and Table IX (unemployment). The remainder of this section examines the participation of females in the formal school system, literacy rates for

females and female labor force participation rates.

a. Education/Literacy

In looking at the data in Tables X and XI, the figures clearly indicate that female enrollments have and will continue to grow steadily. Kindervatter[17] notes the following responses to the data:

--In each year, for each region and at each age level, the percentage of female enrollments is less than male enrollments--except in Latin America from age 6-11.

--By 1985, Africa and Asia will have only about 50% of all primary age girls enrolled, as compared to between two thirds and three quarters of all eligible boys. Secondary school projections for the same year show that about one third of all secondary age girls and one half of secondary school age boys will be enrolled.

--In Latin America, more females than males of primary age were enrolled. However, the difference between primary school and secondary school enrollments is much greater for girls than boys. The most significant attrition occurs at this level. Within each given year, the male-female enrollment differentials increase at each higher level.

What is not shown is the enrollment statistics for different socio-economic classes and geographical areas within each region. Country specific data shows unfavorable female enrollments in which are low-income and largely rural. In Bangladesh and Upper Volta, for example, fewer than 10% of all girls attended primary school in 1975, while in Mali and Niger approximately 35% of all females attended primary school.

TABLE X

PERCENTAGE OF ELIGIBLE AGE GROUPS ENROLLED IN SCHOOL

	1965			1975			1985		
AFRICA	6-11	12-17	18-23	6-11	12-17	18-23	6-11	12-17	18-23
Male:	48%	29%	4%	58%	38%	8%	66%	48%	12%
Female:	32%	15%	1%	43%	23%	3%	53%	32%	6%
Differential:	16%	14%	3%	15%	15%	5%	13%	16%	6%
ASIA*	6-11	12-17	18-23	6-11	12-17	18-23	6-11	12-17	18-23
Male:	68%	35%	7%	70%	38%	10%	75%	42%	11%
Female:	44%	17%	3%	49%	22%	4%	56%	26%	6%
Differential:	24%	18%	4%	21%	16%	6%	19%	16%	5%
LATIN-AMERICA	6-11	12-17	18-23	6-11	12-17	18-23	6-11	12-17	18-23
Male:	64%	45%	12%	79%	39%	24%	86%	70%	35%
Female:	64%	40%	8%	81%	54%	18%	88%	65%	29%
Differential:	0%	5%	4%	-2%	5%	6%	-2%	5%	6%

Source: Serim Timur, "Demographic Correlates of Women's Education--Fertility, Age at Marriage, and the Family," paper prepared for the 18th General Conference of the International Union for the Scientific Study of Population, Mexico City, August 1977, p.3/Table 2.

* Not including the People's Republic of China, Democratic People's Republic of Korea, Socialist Republic of Vietnam, Hong Kong, Republic of Korea, and Japan.

Taken from: Kindervatter, Suzanne. "Promoting Participation of Females," Washington, D.C.: USAID, 1979, p. 8.

TABLE XI

PERCENTAGE OF GIRLS IN TOTAL ENROLLMENT AT EACH LEVEL OF EDUCATION--BY REGIONS

REGION	First Level			Second Level			Third Level		
	1965	1975	1985	1965	1975	1985	1965	1975	1985
M D R	49	49	49	49	50	49	38	44	45
L D R	41	43	44	29	36	38	29	33	36
Africa	39	41	44	29	34	38	20	26	30
Latin America	49	49	49	47	48	48	33	40	41
East Asia	48	49	49	47	47	48	25	32	34
South Asia	39	40	42	26	33	35	30	31	35

Source: Unesco, "Development of School Enrollment: World and Regional Trends and Projections, 1960-2000," Conference Report. Paris: Unesco, 1977, p. 36.

Disparities in literacy rates is also a consideration when examining the differences in access to educational opportunities by sex. A closer look at Indian statistics and those from other Asian countries highlight such differences:

TABLE XII

LITERACY COMPOSITION OF DIFFERENT AGE GROUPS AMONG RURAL WOMEN IN INDIA (BASED ON A 1% SAMPLE)

Age Group	Literate	Primary	Middle	Matric./ H.S.	Dip./ Deg.
35 +	6.24	3.47	0.76	0.19	0.06
25-34	12.15	7.78	2.48	0.81	0.18
20-24	19.41	13.92	5.84	2.16	0.37
15-19	27.70	20.82	9.56	2.15	0.07

Source: B.K. Nayar and Ruchira Nayar,"Education and Employment in Rural India." Literacy Work, Vol. 7, no. 4, Tehran: IIALM, 1978, p. 52.

TABLE XIII

LITERACY IN ASIAN COUNTRIES BY SEX

Country	Year	Age	Male	Female
Sri Lanka	1969	15+	89.4	72.4
Thailand	1970	15+	87.2	70.3
Turkey	1970	15+	69.1	33.6
Syria	1970	15+	59.6	20.0
India	1971	15+	46.4	18.9
Nepal	1971	15+	22.4	2.6
Philippines	1970	10+	84.6	82.2
Malaysia	1970	10+	72.1	49.6
Indonesia	1971	10+	70.8	49.0
India	1971	10+	49.3	22.2

Source: B.K. Nayar and Ruchira Nayar, "Education and Employment in Rural India," Literacy Work, Vol.7, no. 4, Tehran: IIALM, 1978, p. 65.

As is noted in the above table and in Table VI, illiteracy rates for women were significantly higher than those for men with the exception of Lesotho, Jamaica, and Botswana. In 1970, female illiteracy was over 80% in Africa, over 50% in Asia, and about 30% in Latin America. These rates are highest in rural areas of low-income countries.

Most statistics indicate that adolescent girls are more likely to be literate than their mothers. The likelihood of their remaining literate is doubtful due to limited access to formal and non-formal education opportunities in which they have a chance to practice what they have learned in formal school settings.

b. Employment Profile

Table IX, referred to earlier, clearly shows the disparities between males and females regarding unemployment ratios in the Caribbean.

A Nigerian example[18] also points out the disparities between regions within the country with relation to female participation in the labor force in 1976: 68.5% in Ibadan (Yoruba); 5.7% in Zaria (Hausa); 17.9% in Jos (Tiv); and 21.6% in Onitsha (Ibo). The author underscores the fact that the participation of women in the labor force depends upon customs, social mores, religion and income levels, and in this case, ethnic affiliation.

Youseff[19] discusses the following patterns of women's participation in the labor force:

--The industrial society pattern: women's participation is high. High wages and the desire for better living standards oppose the persisting notions of woman's belonging

in the home.

--The Latin American pattern: women's non-domestic participation is low. Young girls often immigrate from the rural areas to work as domestics.

--The Caribbean pattern: women's participation is high. The family system is weak and unstable; illegitimacy rates are high; many women need to be self-sufficient.

--The Muslim Middle East pattern: women's participation rate is low. Most women marry early and attend to their husbands and children, and are secluded from public activity.

The author stresses that societal expectations of women play a large part in the percentages of women participating in the labor force for any given country. Other factors related to this topic will be discussed in Section III of this study.

A second example points to the kinds of labor in which young women are participating. In the following table, a one percent sample of young women in rural India is used to illustrate that most economically active young women are engaged in some type of agriculture.

TABLE XIV

EMPLOYMENT PATTERN OF DIFFERENT AGE GROUPS AMONG WOMEN WORKERS IN RURAL INDIA (1% SAMPLE), 1971

Activities	Percentage Composition of Different Age Groups 20-24	15-19
Cultivation	31.3	31.2
Agricultural labor	54.8	55.8
Animal husbandry	2.4	2.4
Mining/quarrying	0.4	0.4
Manufacturing--household industry	3.9	4.3
Manufacturing--Other than H.I.	1.3	2.4
Construction	0.5	0.5
Trade/commerce	0.6	0.4
Transport/communication	0.2	0.2
Other services	4.0	2.5
Total Number	339,100	317,200

Source: B.K. Nayer and Ruchira Nayer, "Education and Employment in Rural India," Literacy Work, Vol. 7, no. 4, Tehran: IIAL", 1978, p. 57.

7. Other Contributing Factors

In many countries ethnic/cultural heritage plays a role in the opportunities and benefits given to certain groups. As was demonstrated in the earlier Nigerian example, the ethnic (tribal) heritage of the women in the sample clearly had an impact on their employment status in the country. When "targeting" a population in any given country or area within that country, this factor must be kept in mind.

Another factor which should be taken into consideration is the

number of physically and mentally handicapped youth. In a 1977 ILO document,[20] it was estimated that 10% of the population in Africa was physically/mentally handicapped. The numbers are increasing at a high rate due to the rapid population growth, malnutrition, natural disasters, and the increasing tempo of towns and cities. This factor in the profile of the out-of-school youth population should not be neglected.

C. SUMMARY

An examination of the global picture of the youth population shows an increase of some 97% in the 15-24 age group between 1960 and the year 2000. Three quarters of this population are to be found in the developing countries. The out-of-school youth population is growing at a paralleled pace, and in many countries comprises a higher proportion than those youth in school.

Despite continued expenditures on education and the rapid growth of educational facilities, the gaps between the haves and the have-nots will continue for many years. For those large numbers of youth who have had the opportunity to attend formal school in their primary years, many will have dropped out or been pushed out along the way. Only about 50% of the youth in the LDC's that begin school will complete fourth grade, a number which is slightly higher for boys than girls. As one progresses along the schooling ladder, it is found that fewer and fewer youth have access to secondary, tertiary, and non-formal education opportunities. Therefore, the bulk of the out-of-school youth population has from 4 to 10 years of

schooling with a wide variety of literacy levels prevalent in the grouping.

The disparities between urban and rural out-of-school youth will continue to be a problem in the areas of employment and access to education and training. The statistics presented in the foregoing section of the study substantiate the contention that urban youth have, by and large, greater access to employment and educational opportunities. In addition, their overall retention rates while in school are higher. Although they comprise as much as 90% of the out-of-school youth population in some countries, rural youth continue to receive the lowest priorities among program planners.

In most developing countries, the need for employment among youth seems to be the greatest among job seekers with from 4 to 10 years of schooling. Formal education has aroused expectations in youth and in their families and parents. In most instances, youth are trying to find employment that will meet these expectations. This group constitutes the bulk of those migrating from the rural areas to larger urban centers in hopes of finding work. In addition, expenditures of scarce resources, both public and private, have gone into the provision of education for this group, and returns from those investments are expected from society and the economic structures. Statistics from both the urban sector and the rural areas indicate that the out-of-school youth in the age group between 15 and 19 are the group that comprise the largest number of unemployed in many countries.

An assessment of the proportion of males and females in any

of the profiles presented in the foregoing statistics and discussion indicates a general lack of opportunities for females, whether these opportunities be for employment, for education or for training activities. While it is recognized that females are attending school in greater numbers, it should be noted that they are the first to drop out or to be pulled out due to family or work-related responsibilities. Most statistics indicate that young girls are more likely to have attended school or be literate than their mothers but to what extent this schooling or literacy skill is used is a matter to be addressed when targeting a population for programs.

In light of the foregoing discussion, the grouping within the out-of-school youth population selected for special consideration in this study are those with 4 to 10 years of schooling, those out-of-school youth living in rural areas, and female school leavers as one particular group who have been the object of long term discrimination in both educational and employment related opportunities.

PART II

NOTES AND REFERENCES

[1]Unesco, In Partnership with Youth (Paris: Unesco, 1969), p. 16.

[2]Ibid., p. 13.

[3]Unesco, Development of School Enrollment: World and Regional Statistical Trends and Projections, 1960-2000 (Paris: Unesco, Division of Statistics on Education, 1977), p. 35.

[4]Ibid., p. 33.

[5]Unesco, Statistical Dimensions of Out of School Youth in Asia (Paris: Unesco, 1974), p. 33.

[6]Philip Coombs with Roy Prosser and Manzoor Ahmed, New Paths to Learning for Rural Children and Youth (Essex, Connecticut: International Council for Educational Development, 1973), p. 36.

[7]SEAMES, Beyond School Walls (Bangkok: Southeast Asian Ministers of Education Secretariat, 1975), pp. 127-128.

[8]Unesco, Development of School Enrollment, p. 2.

[9]Unesco, Statistical Dimensions, p. 33.

[10]Unesco, Estimates and Projections of Illiteracy (Paris: Unesco, Office of Statistics on Education, 1978), pp. 4-5.

[11]Philip Coombs, New Paths to Learning, p. 57.

[12]Ibid.

[13]Ibid., p. 55-56.

[14]Dhara S. Gill, Education for Rural Youth: Some Problems of Determining Learning Needs (Paris: IIEP/Unesco, 1977), p. 13.

[15]Ibid., p. 36.

[16]OCED, Statistics of the Occupational and Educational Structure of the Labour Force in 53 Countries (Paris: OECD, 1969), various pages.

[17]Suzanne Kindervatter, "Promoting the Participation of Females in the 'Education for Out-of-School Youth Project'" (Washington, D.C.: USAID, 1979), pp. 709. Mimeographed.

[18]Kezian Awosika, "Nigerian Women in the Informal Labor Market" (Paper delivered to the Wellesley Conference on Women in Development, June, 1976), n.p. Mimeographed.

[19]Nadia Youseff, Women and Work in Developing Societies (Population Monograph Series No. 15, 1974), (Berkeley: University of California), p. 3.

[20]ILO, Education for Development (Geneva: International Labour Office, 1977), p. 97.

PART III

NEEDS OF OUT-OF-SCHOOL YOUTH

A. A CONTEXTUAL FRAMEWORK

From a safe non-partisan distance, a discussion of the needs of out-of-school youth would appear a relatively easy topic to address. However, an examination of the literature on the topic produces immediate difficulties in distinguishing the differences between "needs," "wants," "rights," and "problems" of the group under discussion, and the necessity of viewing needs at the individual level as well as at the level of the collective.

Most of those involved in identifying the collective needs and problems of out-of-school youth are representatives of government agencies, individuals who are much older than the youth whose needs are being identified, spokespersons for international organizations, parents of youth and an assortment of other adults. In short, the needs of youth are most often expressed by those who are far from the anxieties of the situation so to speak.

It is not surprising then, that little input in the needs identification process is seen as coming from youth themselves. One obvious weakness of the identification process is the lack of available project documentation and supporting literature in which third world youth are allowed to speak out on their own needs, problems, desires and aspirations.

In the discussion of needs of out-of-school youth which fol-

lows in this section of the study, an attempt is first made to look at individual needs through their explanation as offered by Maslow and others in the behavioral sciences. Then, attention is given to the expression of needs of youth as stated in United Nations literature as well as that which is found in documentation representing the work of governmental and private organizations involved in the conduct of youth programs in both rural and urban settings in the developing countries.

Maslow[1] notes that all behavior is a response to a need, and this behavior is either directed toward a goal or is actually carrying out the goal. One is thirsty (need); thus, one looks for water (goal directed activity); and one drinks (goal activity). Goals are chosen as ways of meeting needs and when the goal has been reached, the need is satisfied. When goals cannot be reached, problems occur. Or, to transfer this into the context of the group under discussion, a youth has failed to pass his qualifying examinations for a seat at the secondary level. His alternatives are to look for work or return to the family farm to work for his parents. At the age of 14, the options which are open to him are few. As job opportunities are limited, and the applicants are many--and more qualified than he/she is--the youth must then face a continued search for employment. But, he/she is not alone. In this case, Maslow's prediction that problems will occur when goals are not reached is the case of millions of young people in developing countries.

Maslow's hierarchical framework of needs helps explain the strength of certain needs at different times in a person's life. His

theory is not intended to be an all or nothing framework. It can be useful in predicting behavior on a high or low probability basis depending upon the socio-economic and psychological environment operating at the time. Physiological needs such as food and shelter tend to have the highest strength and must be met to a certain degree before safety, security and self-preservation needs come into play. When these needs are fairly satisfied a person can seek out affiliation which involves belonging to a family, peer group or community. After those bonds have been established according to a person's needs at the time, the individual can begin to search for recognition and power and to make decisions and feel positive about becoming involved in having a stake in the future. For Maslow, the final stage is one of self-actualization: the need to be or do what one feels one must be or do, whether it is the best of something or doing well in the service of an ideal.

At the individual level, needs occur simultaneously and can not be neatly compartmentalized. Motivation and desire have much to do with the importance of a particular need at a particular time. Two factors that affect the strength of these needs have to do with expectancy and availability.[2] Expectancy is the perceived probability of satisfying a need of an individual based on past experiences. If a young Kenyan boy aspires to become a teacher he may be strongly motivated to do well in school. However, if he does not pass his primary school leaving exam he might begin to feel discouraged. He may even try to continue his schooling in another manner perhaps through a second chance scheme. However, if he continues to fail, his desire

to continue with his career plans may no longer be strong and he may eventually give up on his goal.

Availability reflects the perceived limitations of the environment and it is determined by how accessible the goals are which can satisfy a given need at a given time. In short, it is a person's interpretation of reality. This factor is a crucial component of the khit pen[3] philosophy of the Thai Department of Nonformal Education. When one attempts to solve a problem, individual needs, past knowledge and experience and the degree to which the environment can influence that decision must be considered. If a young Thai mother wants to make clothing for her child, she must consider: how strong that need is; whether she has enough knowledge and experience to perform that task (expectancy); and whether she has the money or facilities to carry out the task (availability).

In a discussion of the individual and collective needs of out-of-school youth, expectancy and availability are seen as interrelated. One must consider an individual's needs and the strength and priority those needs have at a particular time. At the same time, considerations must also be given to the perceived availability of meeting that need for both the individual and the collective. The influence of the socioeconomic, psychological and cultural environment of that individual and their perception of that reality often become meshed with and sometimes secondary to the needs of the collective. For these reasons, the situation is often one in which delicate negotiation must take place, sometimes overtly, between the individual and the collective.

The needs of young adults, and more particularly out-of-school youth, as a collective have been viewed through a growing body of literature on youth and the role youth have to play in development. This includes the work of the United Nations family, private organizations, international assistance organizations, government bodies and private researchers.

The United Nations, in its Universal Declaration of Rights and Responsibilities,[4] talks in terms of what youth deserve to have in addition to what they need to become more active citizens and adults. Among these "rights" is the right to health derived from a person's right to basic life. Included in this area are health needs associated with information about growth and development through the adolescent period, family planning services, nutrition, disease, and mental health among others.

A second and third right are those to education and to work. How each of these rights is translated into legislation and development work in national settings and how these rights are protected are crucial dimensions specific to the situation of youth. For example, a 14 year old might well be prevented by law from working in a particular country while, in fact, he or she may be working in a factory for 20¢ a week. Although a child's right to work is taken into consideration, this work is not perhaps contributing to the child's mental, physical and social development.

An important point related more to general development concerns in the literature and which serves as a third consideration guiding this study is the work being done by a number of international organ-

izations such as the World Bank, Unicef, the International Council for Educational Development, the Food and Agricultural Organization, and Unesco and its affiliates in the provision of programs dealing with basic needs and services, and the connection between such programs and development. Included here are concerns for the improved quality of life, nutrition and basic food production, adequate shelter, maternal and child health care, basic education and appropriate technologies to lighten the tasks of women and girls.

Phillips[5] defines these needs as "survival" or fundamental needs. They include the need for skills and knowledge to secure sufficient food, drink, shelter to sustain life, and means to protect one's family and self against hostile elements; the need for communication within one's social group; the need to share a set of values, beliefs, and types of behavior which is compatible with sustaining the integrity and continuity of the society, and development in specific. According to Phillip the needs of one third to one half of the world's rural families fall into this category. And, without attention to these needs, development will be slowed substantially.

Coombs[6] offers a description of "a minimal package of learning needs" which may begin to address the survival or fundamental needs mentioned above. These include positive attitudes, functional literacy and numeracy, a scientific outlook and an elementary understanding of the processes of nature, functional knowledge and skills for earning a living, and functional knowledge and skills for civic participation. It is these needs and their relationship to development which are the focal point of a later section of this chapter

in which programmatic responses to employment needs, needs for access to education and training opportunities and participation needs are considered.

The provision of a basic minimal package of learning needs is, as can be seen from the listing above, concerned with addressing both individual needs and those of the family and the community. While family needs might include private consumption of food, shelter and clothing as well as household equipment and furniture, community needs are those often associated with the larger concerns of development: safe drinking water, sanitation, public transportation, health, education, and training for employment.

While Coombs' preoccupation has been with the needs of the rural poor, others have concentrated their attention on the urban poor. A recent World Bank publication[7] identifies the following as the development related and individual needs of the urban poor: the need for employment prospects and income raising possibilities; the need for productivity when at work; the need for social and economic mobility; the need to improve conditions at home and within the family; and the need for adjustment to civil and cultural norms and opportunities.

Although rural and urban areas are often treated as separate entities, there are, as one can see from the above discussion, a number of commonalities between the two. The solutions to the problems of one area are intricately tied to the solutions of those of the other.

While Coombs' admonition[8] has been taken seriously, namely that:

> It is necessary to equip out-of-school youth with an understanding of their physical, social, economic and cultural environment, with the knowledge and skills required for employment, household management, family responsibilities, and community participation.

it is felt that certain of these needs have greater effect upon youth's involvement in and impact upon development. These include: knowledge, skills and needs related to employment; needs related to greater access to educational and training resources and opportunities not related to employment; and needs related to participation.

A review of the kinds of projects planned and implemented for out-of-school youth indicate tendencies toward these three areas. Much of the content and focus of these programs deal with some aspect of employment as a way of meeting the needs of the youth population. As summarized from the lists of the needs stated by international assistance granting organizations, employment seems to be a prime area of concern. A second category that encompasses many of the individual and collective needs of youth is in the area of education and training. Many countries view the link between education and development as one which is strong and seek to integrate training/education in all offerings for out-of-school youth. And the third category, participation, reflects the growing concern over the amount and quality of involvement and decision-making power that youth have in their lives.

Isolation of these three areas for special consideration does not negate the value and worth of other areas of needs (recreational, cultural, etc) previously identified but rather points to priorities for consideration. While the difficulties inherent in

separating the needs of youth into neatly compartmentalized categories are realized, some categorization has nonetheless been practical for the analysis which follows.

Within each of the three categories above, consideration is given to the following factors as they effect the determination of the needs of out-of-school youth.

1. The needs of individual young people must be taken into consideration within the context of the family to which they belong and the village and country in which they live. The needs of the individual must be seen in relation to the needs of the larger society.

2. Secondly, when seeking to identify the needs of the population of out-of-school youth, the needs of the individual cannot be isolated from the needs of the family, community, the nation and the larger world. The needs of all of the other "groups" which influence a young person play an important role in the identification of the needs and avenues which are taken to meet those needs. These needs, coupled with those of the individual, form a complex set of interrelationships which are neither easy to study nor amenable to quick solutions.

3. The rural/urban origin and settling place of youth play a major part in the approach to the analysis of the needs of this group. There are disparities in educational and employment opportunities between rural and urban youth in all parts of the world and many of these disparities are contained within a particular country or region.

4. This section also addresses the issue of the differences between the needs of males and females, a difference which hinges not only on the particular social, economic, and cultural situation of the individual but also considers established patterns of discrimination in opportunities for women.

5. Religious affiliation, cultural heritage, levels of attained schooling, social class, and physical, mental and psychological handicaps have also been considered as important factors in this study. Additional concern was addressed to the possibilities of a wide range of needs emanating from an age group as large as the one isolated for study.

A review of selected programmatic responses to the three categories of needs is included in the discussion which follows. It is

difficult to always find well attested to and assessed project examples. Projects need time to demonstrate how they succeed or fail. They also need time to show how they become adjusted to reflect the realities of the situation which program planners perhaps failed to see or did not want to see from their offices in New York, Washington or capital cities. Organizations engaged in field work often do not have the time or money for committing the critical history of projects to the printed word. And, organizations granting assistance also have poor memory systems.

The projects which have been selected should not be construed as either the best or the worst, but rather those which offer a valid point of reference for future planning of out-of-school youth programs. In some instances, projects reviewed are among the classics, those which are found in everyone's taxonomy: the Botswana Brigades, the Mobile Trade Training Schools and SENA. In other cases, those reviewed, as in the case of the Gambian Youth Functional Literacy Project, represent some discoveries not yet committed to bound printed volumes already shelved for reference. In many cases, these projects offer more promise as they often exhibit the development of sometimes spontaneous responses which draw heavily on local culture, traditions and "more practical" ways of doing things.

A narrative summary of the projects reviewed in the responses to employment needs section is presented in Appendix II. Those reviewed in conjunction with equal access to training and education resources and participation needs form a part of the text.

B. EMPLOYMENT NEEDS OF OUT-OF-SCHOOL YOUTH

Although the rhetoric of documents like the Universal Declaration of Human Rights states that every young person has the right to work, employment opportunities are often lacking. Data showed that 80% of the unemployment in Mauritius in 1973 was in the 15 to 24 age group.[9] Similar data for Kenya indicated that open unemployment among youth 16 to 24 stood at 72%.[10] In the strong industrial areas of Mexico (Federal District, Monterrey and Guadalajara) the rate of open unemployment among the 12 to 24 age group was 20%.[11] And, in areas of Asia, as in Sri Lanka, unemployment is seen as being basically a problem of youth with 1969-70 figures indicating that over 82% of those unemployed were youths.[12]

There are those who would be quick to point out problems with the data just presented, in that these percentages do not, because of differences in the concept of unemployment and its measurement, signify the real dimensions of the employment situation of youth in the specific countries mentioned. Others would contend that such statistics are not overly useful in establishing policy measures in the face of the youth employment problem. Despite the admonition of those writers, this preliminary exposure to such quantitative statements does highlight certain areas within the total problem, areas for which it may be necessary to disaggregate the youth labor force by educational and urban-rural background and then consider the employment situation of each group separately.

Rapid rates of population growth in most of the developing world has made youth under the age of 25 the largest segment of the

population. And, as the introductory discussion to this section has shown, it is precisely among this age group that the employment needs are the most pressing. A 1979 World Bank[13] report notes that the labor force is growing at a rate of some 2% per annum in the developing countries. While it took the labor force of the more industrialized countries about 90 years to double, it now takes less than 30 years for the labor force to double in the developing world. Although the agricultural sector remains the main source of the labor market in the low income countries, the industrial labor market, where present, has expanded, but at a rate which can only absorb between 20 to 30% of each year's labor force.

With resultant unemployment and underemployment, particularly among youth between the ages of 14 and 25, emerging as a significant "problem," it is little wonder that education, development and labor planners have been moved to action. Although many countries have experienced significant expansion of educational and training offerings for out-of-school youth, most efforts have been small in nature and have yet to make a visible dent in either the problem of unemployment among youth or in policies guiding the development of programs to meet the employment needs of out-of-school youth. Many programs began with good intentions, and then experienced a shift in emphasis, due to economic, political or social changes, and were thus unable to achieve their original objectives.

Education has made youth more mobile and increased the range of possible options. Those who have been able to secure places in the formal schools stand a better chance of higher earnings later in

life. But, in some countries, expansion of education has been linked to increased unemployment among those recently graduated, especially from secondary schools. In Sri Lanka, World Bank figures note[14], almost 20% of secondary school graduates were unemployed in the early 1970's. Such findings should not be construed as a criticism of the success of schools in producing graduates, but rather point to the failure of the labor market, and to the entire economy for that matter, to adjust to the imbalances of numbers of schooled youth entering it. In short, the problem must be viewed in a wider perspective--historically, economically and socially.

Furthermore, the lack of education and access to training resources in rural areas has served to increase the gap between rural and urban areas and particularly among the youth which constitute the two geographical contexts.

In the section which follows, employment needs of out-of-school youth are discussed. In doing so, these needs are presented in relation to the modern, traditional and informal sectors. An attempt is then made to define one particular group of out-of-school youth among whom employment is a crucial question, <u>those with four to ten years of schooling</u>. In selecting this particular group the intent is not to diminish the needs of both male and female youth with no exposure to the formal school system. Instead, the identification of this group is meant to serve as a backdrop for the project review which follows.

<u>1. Availability of Employment and Skills Needed</u>

The employment needs of out-of-school youth encompass much

more than skills training for any one of the three economic sectors into which they might go in search of employment. Although the development of technical skills is often thought to be the most important aspect of youth employment needs, there is little that a well-trained youth can do if there are no jobs to be had. Or, for the young adult who has just finished a one year electrician's course, the lack of capital to start into the repair business on his/her own could well mean the loss of valuable training and stifled initiative. For the young farmer, no amount of training can take the place of knowing that access is available to the agricultural credit which may be necessary to purchase fertilizers, equipment or seeds. And, in the case of the latter, vocational training in the field of agriculture will not precipitate benefits if land tenure practices do not change and permit young farmers greater access to the one item upon which agricultural production hinges--land.

Even though the purpose of this section of the study is that of discussing specific employment needs of out-of-school youth and not the structural changes often requisite for the creation of employment opportunities for them, one cannot treat the former without an awareness of the latter. For, it is through the examination of the composite that an understanding of the elements is possible.

a. The Traditional Sector

In the traditional sector of the economy, there will be a continued need for those willing to work the land and work with their hands. Those who seek out this option will, of necessity, need agri-

cultural and vocational training with an even heavier emphasis on income-generating skills than currently offered. Not only are there a set of skills and new knowledge needed for farming, animal husbandry, forestry, and other agro-related activities, there will be an increasing need for those who can perform skills basic to non-farm employment, that is, the occupations ancillary to agriculture.

In many African countries, rural areas and towns provide over 75% of all nonfarm employment opportunities. In southern and eastern Asia, the figure is some 65% and in Latin America, the range is from 30 to 35%.[15] The distribution services, support services, and repair and food processing, especially at the local level, are among these nonfarm occupations. Along with the skills for these occupations, there is a new demand for skills in small business management and marketing, both of which contribute to wage earning and self-employment possibilities.

Within the traditional sector there is a growing awareness that the employment needs of women have long been neglected. Women, particularly in Africa, are primarily responsible for food production. But, technologies for easing the burdens of farm labor and training in their use have been slow in coming. Women are also highly active in marketing and trading--both areas which involve special skills.

For youth, much of the employment available in the traditional sector is either as a member of a family production unit or day laborer. Many of the skill needs of youth entering the traditional sector can be met through indigenous informal learning arrangements, nonformal education programs with vocational and technical compon-

ents, primary schools and provision of support services by agriculture and agro-industries. Few opportunities present themselves for a youth of 16 to take up farming actively, or to pursue livestock raising in a capacity other than as a herdboy, or to enter into other agro-related activities as a self-employed person. Whatever work is available is manual in nature, as mechanization of farming remains far from within reach of the majority of the world's farmers toiling on their hectare of land.

For these reasons, rural youth, in particular, have as a prime employment need the realization that manual labor is a gainful way in which to earn one's living. That is, youth need to see the benefits of such work--economic and other. Such a realization might prove extremely difficult to achieve when a youth has watched his parents eke out a living from their rural existence.

b. The Formal Sector

In the formal sector, employment is available on a limited basis in the expanding industrial base in many developing countries. But the positions which do open each year are highly competitive, both in terms of skills and in terms of academic qualifications. For these reasons, out-of-school youth aspiring to work in industry will need the precise skills to qualify them for employment. Vocational, technical and trade training will be of importance. It is likely that industry will become more involved in training its own workers, either through training carried out in-house, or on-the-job, or through contracting with private organizations. In any case, the

training will most likely not be long in nature, with the immediate needs of the industry dictating both content and length of training. And, it has been suggested that greater use will be made of refresher or follow-up/in-service training.

Past attempts at forecasting labor force needs have, in cases, gone dramatically awry. It is only in the past few years that the International Labour Office and national governments have begun programs aimed at more reliable predictions and planning.

As many smaller businesses continue to grow and enter the formal sector, they will provide limited employment opportunities for out-of-school youth. As most of these fall within the category of the 10 to 20 person businesses, special employment skills could center on business management, marketing, distribution services, knowledge of import/export functions, and specific technical skills.

Governments of many countries continue to be the largest employers in the formal sector as they remain the primary providers of education, health and agricultural services. One particular area of hope for employment of out-of-school youth is in the support services for education, health and agriculture. As increased decentralization becomes more wide spread, greater use will be made of paraprofessionals, facilitators, animators and extension agents. It would appear that primary skills needed for service work would be high empathy, motivation and a genuine concern in working with others, along with both the general and specific skills needed for the job.

c. The Informal Sector

In many countries, the greatest employment opportunities for urban youth lie in the informal modern sector, sometimes called the unorganized or "murkey" sector depending upon one's economic vantage point. In some countries, there is a growing awareness that the informal sector provides training for much of the person-power necessary for the modern sector either through apprenticeship learning, on-the-job training or a variety of informal learning arrangements. Those engaged in this sector tend to be younger, a fact which suggests that many youth may enter the informal sector and successfully find both training and employment outside the sector. At the same time, in specific regions and countries, there is very little vertical integration of the informal sector into the next technological level, i.e., more skill-intensive or capital-intensive modes of production.

The main types of business activity within the sector entail manufacturing, usually through small workshops of 1 to 10 people. Services provided include mechanical or auto repairs and building, including carpentry, masonry and woodworking. Training within the sector is, as King notes in his study of the informal sector in Kenya,[16] product specific with the learner not being exposed to the whole spectrum of skills associated with a craft, but rather with a number of separate operations. For this reason, there are critics who would argue that those receiving training in this sector are not craftsmen, but rather "rough and ready" improvisers. Despite certain problems, it is important to note that skills training in the

informal sector is conducted at little cost to society as training is on-the-job and/or through contractual arrangement between the youth and the craftsman.

Recent studies in Francophone African cities[17] (Nihan and Jourdain 1977 and Nihan, Carton and Sidibé, 1979) demonstrate the scope of informal sector activity and the employment possibilities that exist therein.

2. Where the Need for Employment is the Greatest

In most developing countries, the need for employment seems to be the greatest among job seekers with from four to ten years of schooling, that group which is made up of both "dropouts" from the formal school system, and those who constitute the "pushed outs", who for lack of school places and competitive examinations are no longer part of the formal system. This particular group is composed of several sub-groups which are constituted on the basis of geographic location, ethnic and linguistic characteristics, and sex. But before turning to a discussion of each of the sub-groups, it is instructive to look at the larger grouping.

The reasons for the concentration of employment needs for job seekers with from four to ten years of schooling can be summarized as follows.

1. The problem is, as has been noted earlier, a cumulative one, with the number of youth entering the active labor force each year being much greater than the number of employment places available to them.

2. Formal education has aroused expectations, not only on the part of the youth, but also on the part of their parents and families, many of whom have denied themselves

other expenditures so that their children could attend school, thus preparing themselves for a better living.

3. It is this group which constitutes the greatest portion of those migrating from the rural areas to urban centers with hopes of finding work and a better life there.

4. Rapid rural to urban migration brings about a rate of urban growth which cities are unprepared to accomodate, both in terms of physical services and social services.

5. Unemployment has both high social and high economic costs. Those not working tend to reduce the standard of living of those who are. Prolonged unemployment among youth is accompanied by problems such as crime and juvenile delinquency. With continued unemployment, society becomes more divided into distinct groups of the haves and the have nots. And, expenditures of scarce resources, both public and private have gone into the provision of education for this group, and payoffs from those investments are being delayed.

Within this larger grouping of job seekers with from four to ten years of schooling, there seems to be a particular need to address the employment needs of youth in rural areas, where employment opportunities outside the traditional and informal sector are lacking. As noted earlier, underemployment is a particular characteristic of this group, and rural areas in general. With actual wage employment limited by the nature of the agricultural sector and the employment needs of the family production unit dictating involvement in outside work, a closer look must be taken at the informal sector and nonfarm employment as sources of additional employment for out-of-school youth.

Another group which deserves special attention is that comprised of young female school leavers. The young female school leaver faces her own set of needs in light of what her primary and

secondary schooling has given her and what the future holds. She is part of a small group of women who have been given or allowed access into a traditionally male domain--the school. If she is from Jamaica, it is possible that her mother also had some schooling. But her peer in Morocco may be a first generation "student." It is conceivable that she has already faced negative or neutral familial, community and societal attitudes about women and education. Her rural family may have given her permission to go as long as she completed the household tasks before school or may have sent her only after all of her brothers had completed their schooling. Or, she might have lived in the city where all of the girls her age were in school, and attended school through social pressure.

After completion of school, or dropping out, what does the future hold for her? In a recent Kenyan study[18] it was found that the age at which girls marry was lower (age 16) in areas where they did not have access to schooling or dropped out early. If she chooses to remain at home, and become involved in the traditional sector, or if that decision has been made for her through traditional and cultural norms, she needs to consider the following:

--her place in the family (expectations, agricultural and non-agricultural duties, needed contribution to family income);

--current and future marital status (how can she combine family responsibilities with income producing activities);

--limited access to training opportunities in "women only skills" and irrelevant formal education.

If her position will be in the informal sector her needs/problems may include the above family considerations along with:

--traditional divisions of labor along sex roles and inequalities in wages

--the unknown capacity of the job market to support her usual production, market and service wages

If she is considering the modern sector, her needs might center on many of the above concerns. In addition, she would need to consider:

--the need for more specific skill training or further education through institutions, often catering to males only, or nonformal education schemes often regarded as "second class"

--legal and government discriminatory work laws and certification requirements which affect women

--lack of money for access to advanced vocational and technical training and education

--a life in the urban sector where family responsibilities and child care become more of a burden

--societal attitudes regarding working women and the types of jobs to which women are allowed access.

These options affect the psychological well-being of the female school leaver as she enters a world that might be alien, isolating and without the supports she may need to assume a new or different role from those of her mother and grandmother. Although current government policies have been in favor of more females in secondary and primary schooling, the other factors which will have the ultimate effect on the young female school leaver's personal, social, cultural and political development will have to receive more consideration.

3. Responses to Employment Needs of Out-of-School Youth

Responses to the employment needs of out-of-school youth have been as varied as the specific settings and situations from

which the needs have emerged. Responses also have reflected the biases and diversity of those organizations, institutions and governments which have undertaken them in the name of "youth." In this section, specific responses to out-of-school youth employment needs will be presented. Before doing so, the paragraphs which follow discuss the general nature of the responses taken to date.

There are those, and for the most part they have been far from the "anxieties" of the scene, who have suggested that nothing be done about the youth unemployment problem as it was thought that the problem would, in time, solve itself. Proponents of this approach argued that the aspirations of youth were out of line with employment opportunities, and given time and an exposure to realities, youth would revise their expectations and settle for less than what they had initially wanted. Evidence has shown that the out-of-school youth employment problem has not been self-correcting and that the number of jobless youth is cumulative in nature rather than diminishing. The "do nothing" argument also contends that the more one does for a specific group, in this case youth, the more one will have to do in the future.

An early set of responses to youth employment needs were revisions in the existing formal system in an attempt to make formal education more relevant. As King notes, "it is assumed, on very little evidence, that youngsters who are skilled as well as schooled will be more easily absorbed into the labour market."[19] These responses took a number of forms. Expansion of formal schooling was seen as a means of better preparing youth for future employment

opportunities. Vocationalization and ruralization of the curriculum at both the primary and secondary levels were seen as measures contributing to creating relevance between the educational offering and the youth's environment. In desperation, vocational guidance programs were instituted in hopes of rectifying problems created by earlier modifications and revisions.

Of greater interest to this discussion are two additional sets of responses to the problem. The first are those responses which are geared to "reforming the economy." The second set are responses aimed at actual skill building processes placed outside the formal and organized vocational educational system, truely out-of-school education for preparation for occupations and on-the-job training.

The "reform the economy" responses are based on the assumption that generating more jobs and creating an atmosphere in which further meaningful employment can be created depends on measures taken throughout the economy. Specific responses in this area have been geared to the transformation of rural areas and the encouragement of rural development; the increased participation of women, young females and ethnic and linguistic minorities in social and economic life; the encouragement of small business management, entrepreneurship and cottage industries; and re-allocation of necessary services from a concentration in urban areas into areas where they become more accessible to rural populations. In short, there is a strong belief in these responses for the need for more productive involvement of more eligible persons through diversified training

and participation in the process of development.

An additional set of responses are those geared to skill building processes placed outside the formal and organized educational system and which include on-the-job training and training for occupations. Beginning in the mid 1970's, there was a renewed interest by donor agencies as well as by national governments in skill training and skills development. Part of this interest derived from disillusion with the narrowly conceived policies for skilled manpower resource development prevalent in the formal sector of the economy. There was, as well, increased interest in the promotion of self-employment skills, especially as related to rural areas, and less attention to producing skilled laborers for wage and salaried jobs.

Included in this set of responses are literacy training for youth with little or no past schooling, apprenticeships and other forms of on-the-job training, continuing education for those with professional qualifications, extension programs to assist youth involved in small scale industries and farming, and a wide range of educational services aimed at both community development and community participation as they relate to employment needs and income generation. Also included in this grouping are skills upgrading programs for master craftsmen, as these programs are seen as indirectly aiding in meeting the employment training needs of youth.

In the section which follows, specific attention is given to an analysis of educational and training responses to youth employment problems. In preparing the analysis, particular attention

has been given to a number of projects which have had either employment generation or skills building as their major component. Also included in this discussion are several programs for youth which have been geared to what was earlier referred to as "reforming the economy." The projects considered are discussed in narrative form in Appendix II.

a. Ruralization/Vocationalization of the Curriculum as a Response to Employment Needs of Out-of-School Youth

Commentary: Ruralization and vocationalization of the curricula have been attempted in a number of countries with varying success. Although not specific responses to youth already out-side the school, it is felt by many that responses by the school system, if instituted at the right time during a youth's participation in school, will better prepare youth for the world of work and a rural life. Reviews of the projects mentioned in this section appear in Appendix II.

The argument for ruralization of the curriculum is not a new one. In some areas of Africa, it dates from the 1920's. Few of the early efforts were successful at incorporating agriculture and a rural flavor into the formal schools due to teachers who knew little about agriculture or because educational structures would not accomodate what was being advocated. In more recent periods, there have been a number of notable attempts. Some of these, such as the Cuban schools in the countryside and reforms in the Tanzanian primary schools, have been tied to larger social and political movements. Others, like the Centres d'Education Rurales (CER) in Upper Volta, have led to the evolution of non-school ruralized educational offerings.

Attempts to ruralize the curriculum stem from a belief that

agrarian economies, much like those of Upper Volta and Bangladesh where some 80 to 90% of the active labor force is engaged in agriculture or agriculture related activities, need a vital educational system which teaches agriculture and an appreciation for the rural way of life. This is felt to be especially crucial if one is to successfully attack the roots of the employment problem by encouraging fuller participation in the rural economy. Given the limited numbers of work positions in the formal and informal sectors, agriculture is seen as the one sector which can absorb the increasing labor force. Proponents of ruralization of the curriculum feel that education which promotes the tendency to leave farming contributes to unemployment. The solution, then, is to ruralize the curricula of the primary and secondary schools and infuse it with references to agriculture, introducing practical work which exemplifies good farming practices.

In the case of the CER's in Upper Volta, what began as an effort to ruralize the curriculum to make it more relevant to the needs of rural youth, was, in effect, taken out of the context of the formal system so that its initial objective could be achieved. By putting the rural learning experience into the context of an effort larger than that of the formal system, rural youth were able to enter into productive agricultural employment. The example of the CER's serves to highlight a point which Blaug (1972) makes in that those seeking quick and easy answers to the employment problem by attempting curriculum reforms within the formal system are in for a task that is both difficult and often without immediate, short

term results.

Vocationalization has not been without its critics, one of the strongest and most often quoted being Foster. In his now famous "The Vocational School Fallacy," he argues that schools should not be transformed into terminal vocational training institutions. He points out that schools, that is academic education, have long been the most "vocational" in that successful students were rewarded with the best jobs. He delineates the fallacy of curricular change, that is, a shift in the curriculum to add vocational agriculture, for example, and contends that it will not necessarily result in attitudinal changes more receptive to agricultural employment or rural living on the part of students.

Foster's critics, like Weeks,[20] in his "Kujitegema and Ujamaa in Tanzania" note a contradiction in his approach in that he ignores that for the many who have failed, primary or secondary school is indeed the terminal vocational training institution, no matter what has been taught. Why then, Weeks argues, should not subjects which might be more relevant to the lives and work of those learners be included in educational offerings? In essence, Weeks' argument lies in the residual effect of an exposure to vocational offerings as part of the formal offerings.

The projects reviewed for this section describe both what King[21] refers to as the mass approach, that is the insertion of pre-vocational skills into the basic cycle of education so that all have an exposure--and the selective approach, in which pre-vocational skills are concentrated more narrowly on one group who have progressed

to a certain point within the formal system.

b. Skill Building Processes Outside the Formal Education System

Commentary: Skills building processes which have taken place outside the formal school system are discussed in this section of the paper. Included here are both on-the-job and off-the-job types of training as well as the more common combined training programs. Projects reviewed for this section have included:

..pre-vocational training
..vocational and technical education for industry
..apprenticeships
..agricultural skills training
..entrepreneurial and management training
..training for nonfarm activities in rural areas
..and training programs which have had the transformation of the rural economy and environment as their objectives.

In each instance, advantages and disadvantages of each of the three major types of training have been presented. It is realized that there is a certain amount of overlap in the categorizations which have been used, but such is the diverse nature of the offerings which exist in the real world.

A narrative presentation of the projects reviewed for this section is included in Appendix II.

A wide variety of programs are included in this group of responses to the employment needs of out-of-school youth. They range from pre-vocational training for 10 and 12 year-olds with no prior schooling to special programs for 18 to 20 year-olds seeking specialization in rural agriculture and training as village facilitators. In some instances, use is made of the facilities of the formal school system, either during the day or in the evenings. In others, responses have been patterned after indigenous training models like apprenticeships in the job-based and industry-based orientation of learning while doing.

Before moving to a description of the range of projects and their major advantages and disadvantages, a clarification is offered in the area of vocational and technical training. In the foregoing section on vocationalization and ruralization of the curricula, vocational and technical training were treated in the context of the formal school system. In this section, they are treated as responses exterior to the formalized system and are taken to mean that training which makes an individual more employable in one group of occupations than another. Often, the term is used, and this is particularly true in legislation, to include only instruction designed to enable people to succeed in occupations requiring less than a baccalaureate degree. Although this may appear to be a rather narrow limitation, the projects reviewed for this section of the paper show that this characterization holds true especially in countries and regions with a rich tradition of vocational and technical education programs which have been formalized.

A matter which surfaced repeatedly in the projects reviewed had to do with the objectives of vocational training programs for out-of-school youth. There was concern over the conflicts which are seen as arising when vocational training programs designed to meet national needs for workers may actually decrease individual options. There was also concern when the reverse was true. Clearly, vocational education programs which concentrate too heavily on one set of objectives at the expense or exclusion of others will encounter difficulty.

(1) On-the-Job Training

On-the-job training programs for out-of-school youth were seen to have a number of advantages. Being trained for a specific job and learning while working were seen as the primary advantages for the youth involved in such programs. Programs ranged from those which were highly organized with a substantial curriculum and regular instructors such as the Urban Labor Training Project in El Salvador and the Liberian Opportunities Industrialization Centers to the more loosely structured, informal helper/craftsman approach of the ZAAC project in Cameroon.

In some instances, youth earn while they are learning as in the case of the apprenticeship portion of the YMCA/ORT Senegalese Integrated Youth Development Project in Dakar. At the same time, on-the-job programs often provide youth with placement into an immediate job and they do not have to face looking for employment after training. The Senegalese project serves as a good example of a project with such an advantage.

Perhaps the most basic form of on-the-job training is the apprenticeship system in wide existence in a number of countries. Apprenticeship programs offer a number of advantages in that the costs of the training are borne by the individual and not by either the employer or the government. Depending upon the trade and the location, apprenticeship programs accomodate youth with a wide range of literacy skills. In the case of more organized apprenticeship programs, such as the Tunisian project reviewed in this section, basic education is a feature of the program.

In addition, on-the-job training programs for youth lessened the chance that youth will be trained for obsolete jobs or skills. With emphasis on training as defined by the employer and not by educational planners, on-the-job training produces such relevance. For example, in the case of the Urban Labor Training Project in El Salvador, courses are determined by education and trade councils which are established as part of the ongoing programs.

On-the-job training programs for youth conducted by MOBRAL, the Brazilian literacy movement, offer programs in which youth can upgrade their skills and therefore facilitate their possibilities for promotion or movement into additional skills training courses. In the case of the Brazilian programs, as well as those of the Liberian Opportunities Industrialization Center, talented youth can move easily through the series of ladder-programs run by the organization.

On-the-job training is not without its advantages for the employer and the state as well. For the employer, on-the-job training offers the possibility of instilling work habits in the context of the work environment as opposed to the artificial environment outside the actual work place. On-the-job training is also seen as cutting down on turnover through specific job training and as contributing to output.

In some countries, on-the-job training is seen as beneficial to the state in that the costs for such training are usually borne by the private employer. The latter is particularly true in developing countries where there is a growing private industrial base.

On-the-job training is not without its disadvantages. Many employers see it as disruptive, especially if the ratio of trainees to employees is large. On-the-job training is also seen as problematic when the demands of the occupation necessitate high level literacy skills and theoretical knowledge which cannot be taught on-the-job. Such training also presumes job openings and the existence of industry and implies a narrowly conceived training rather than one which is broad based.

(2) Off-the-Job Training

Off-the-job training is often conducted in a simulated shop situation or in a regular classroom and is concerned with imparting vocational knowledge or knowledge which preceeds work. Often as in the case of the Boulak Project in Egypt, pre-vocational off-the-job training is concerned with sharpening academic skills and basic training in the use of a wide variety of tools and skills.

Off-the-job training is often offered through state-run public vocational centers. But, there is a growing tendency, as the project review notes, for pre-vocational and pre-apprenticeship training to be conducted by private or assistance granting organizations.

Such training assumes that trainees require a certain amount of vocational and technical knowledge prior to entering the work force. Off-the-job training is also seen as a preliminary to the more complex skill acquisition process which is connected with on-the-job training. The examples of the Boulak Project and the Tunisian Pre-Apprenticeship Centers both are good illustrations of such training concerns.

In off-the-job training, skills are based on an organized and systematic body of theory. Youth often learn more than one trade such as in the programs of SENA in Colombia and the projects mentioned above. Off-the-job training allows for the training of a larger number of young people as courses can be offered at various times during the day and not only during work hours.

Among the disadvantages of off-the-job training noted in the projects reviewed are the need for a relatively high level of literacy and computational skills as well as a common language to facilitate training. Off-the-job training requires instructors who are both versed in the trade being taught and the teaching methodologies. Training conducted off-the-job has been characterized by some as being inflexible, a characteristic based on the realities of dealing with fixed facilities and full time teachers. An additional disadvantage, especially from the point of view of youth involved in such training, is that they must, after the training is over, go out and find a job. This matter has been addressed in part by a number of training programs which offer placement services for youth as well as vocational guidance during the course of the program.

(3) Combined Training Programs

The review of projects for this section of the paper showed that by and far the majority of programs for skills training for youth employ a combination of on-the-job and off-the-job training. In Appendix II, an attempt is made to compare and contrast these projects thus highlighting the differences in programs designed for

rural and urban audiences as well as on- and off-the-job training and combinations thereof.

There are a number of points of interest which emerge from this review. First, it appears essential to combine both the on-job and off-job aspects of training into either co-operative work ventures or into "sandwich" training allowing for periods of study and work. The inclusion of one to the exclusion of the other does not allow for realistic training or preparation of youth to assume employment.

Second, in programs which were designed to train youth for skills related to agriculture, it was found as in the case of the Formation des Jeunes Agriculteurs in Upper Volta, that the involvement of farmers in the actual training of the youth was important. In this way, skill programs designed by non-"farmers" were put to the test of relevancy and local practice. From the point of view of both the farmers and youth, this element of community participation was extremely important.

Third, training within the environment with local tools and resources was seen as an important way of placing new value on manual and agricultural skills development. In programs like those conducted in SENA's PPP-R programs, where youth were able to see the immediate use to which their new skills could be applied programs tended to have greater impact.

Fourth, it was also found to be important to offer incentives, either in the form of salaries, as in the Senegalese program mentioned earlier, or in the form of part of the produce/product emerging from

the training session as in the case of Rice Production Short Course at Ifugo Agricultural College in the Philippines. In this way, the opportunity costs of training were not seen as outweighing the long term benefits.

Fifth, combined training programs, such as those conducted by the Mobile Trade Training Units in Thailand, allow for the use of trained instructors for more theoretical aspects as well as the use of craftsmen who were engaged in teaching their occupation instead of teaching about an occupation. In the Singapore Fisheries Project, naval engineers worked alongside experienced fishermen and deckhands with all serving as instructors in the program.

Sixth, combined training programs offered the greatest possibilities for participation of both youth and other members of the community in program planning and implementation. By taking training into the work environment, private and public enterprise were both engaged in the training activity. By conducting a portion of the training as off-job, educators were able to have their needs fulfilled. By moving back and forth between the two, youth and program planners were able to not only see the interconnections between on-job and off-job training but experience them first hand.

(4) Entrepreneurial Skills Training for Nonfarm Activities

The past few years have witnessed growing concern for the provision of specialized training which would enable out-of-school youth to become self-employed in small enterprises. The most notable examples of these programs have been in India where impressive

efforts have been invested in stimulating small industry and entrepreneurial training in both rural and urban areas. From the inception of such programs, which were in some instances reactions to the failure of many skills training and vocational training programs to produce youth with employable skills, it was realized that more than skill training in a specialized craft was necessary.

There was a perceived need for managerial training which had been absent from earlier skills training programs. In addition, it was realized that "seed" money would be necessary if youth were to be able to begin their own workshops, small businesses, or repair establishments. And, it was realized that vocational skills, managerial training, and "seed" money would all have to be combined with support services for the effective development of youth in business as a means of more equitable distribution of wealth and stimulating self-employment. Through the encouragement of such enterprises, development was encouraged at the micro level and where it would be felt immediately.

Several projects reviewed in this section present similar strategies for the development of managerial skills and entrepreneurial training. In each case, there is evidence of the necessity to carefully prepare the necessary infrastructure so as to avoid failure and consequent loss of interest. There is an obvious need for continuous flow of data and the need for definite policies, especially when the programs are undertaken by governments and not by private institutions.

Also emerging from the project review is the need for commun-

ity involvement in program planning and implementation in programs geared to managerial skills development. There is a need for co-ordination of efforts with a large number of agencies and the need for secure commitments of financing ("seed" money) for graduates of training programs as they undertake the establishment of their own enterprises.

The projects reviewed also point to the need for planners to consider the development of entrepreneurial training not only for the modern or informal sectors of the economy but also for agriculture. In the case of agriculture, this is especially true in programs related to post-harvesting activities: marketing of produce, processing of grains and produce, and marketing of processed foods. In the case of the Xavier Institute in Ranchi, India, all three sectors are treated. In the FJA's in Upper Volta, the concern is for training in agriculture.

The need for training to include the concepts of risk taking and the importance of the entrepreneurial decision are highlighted in documentation surrounding the Xavier project in particular. The entrepreneurial activity is seen in terms of the perception of an opportunity, setting up an industrial unit/production unit based on that opportunity and the running of that unit as a going, profitable and growing concern.

Entrepreneurial and managerial skills training programs have found it necessary to pay close attention to the development of the individual and the qualities and skills that are required in the individual for successful entrepreneurial activities. From an exam-

ination of project documentation it would appear that those qualities and skills would include the following:

> motivational factors such as entrepreneurial motivation, personal efficacy and coping ability;
>
> skills such as project identification, project development and enterprises building; and
>
> knowledge of the immediate environment, industry and of the technologies to be used in the undertaking.

The success of the various programs seems to be linked to the way in which the above elements are emphasized in training programs. In the Indian example, heavy emphasis is placed on project identification and development thus leading to enterprise building, while other projects have tended to emphasize one or the other of the elements of training.

Documentation for each of the projects notes that the skills and knowledge subsumed under management and managerial ability was perhaps the weakest link in the program. This was tackled in the Indian case by a concentration of effort on project planning and management.

Selection of participants for entrepreneurial training has been a topic of discussion in all of the examples of managerial skills projects reviewed. Some projects quickly realized that during the implementation and evaluation of programs that being unemployed was perhaps the last qualification for any one to take to an entrepreneurial career.

The development of a support system for the trainees and recent graduates of the programs and its workings were seen in each

instance as being crucial to the eventual success of the programs. These systems were comprised of not only financial assistance, but also the provision of technical assistance from training staff who could visit program graduates and offer technical assistance. In addition, the support system served as a supply of raw materials for enterprises, and contributed to the development of necessary infrastructure.

(5) Reforming the Rural Economy and Environment

Much of what has been developed in the way of skills training programs for out-of-school youth in rural areas in the past two decades has taken the form of offerings through permanent rural development training centers. Because of their permanence, many of these centers, as will be noted by the project review in Appendix II, see their task as more than the development of skills training programs.

The "reforming the rural economy responses" are based on the assumption that generating more jobs and creating an atmosphere in which further employment and development can take place depend upon measures taken throughout the economy. Specific responses in this area have been geared to the transformation of rural areas and the encouragement of rural development; the increased participation of women, young females and ethnic and linguistic minorities in social and economic life; the encouragement of small business management, entrepreneurship and cottage industries; and the re-allocation of necessary services from a concentration in urban areas into areas

where they are more accessible to rural dwellers. The basic philosophy guiding such programs has been a strong belief that in these responses there is a need for more productive involvement of more eligible persons through diversified training and participation in the process of development.

Basic to many of the projects reviewed for this section was a concern and an awareness of both personal growth and increased participation in revitalizing rural areas. The Tutu Rural Training Center in Fiji and the Jamaican Youth Community Centers, for example, are developing confidence of youth in their own ability to bring about change at the village level.

Self-reliance, self-help and cooperativeness were also present in many of the projects reviewed. The Botswana Brigades provide not only practical work experience to Brigade members but also generate education while attempting to mobilize human resources in rural areas to create co-operative work forces. In Indonesia, youth 17 to 24 participate in the National Youth Committee's (KMPI) transmigration scheme in which they establish their own villages and provide services for each other with minimal support from the government. Other notable examples of self-help and self-reliance programs exist in Malaysia, Kenya and Tanzania.

Many youth programs in rural areas are seeking to utilize existing resources more efficiently rather than investing large sums of money in the creation of new resources. One such project, the Village Development Centers of Papua New Guinea, uses already existing community centers as the locale for their training programs

in an attempt to take training out of the centers and into the villages. The same program has undertaken a serious coordination task in seeking to help in the coordination of their activities with all other agencies working at the village level.

Local initiative is a strong element in many of the rural development projects for youth. Examples such as the Maisons Familiales Rurales in New Caledonia attest to the ability of parents, village elders and youth to respond to the needs of youth and organize programs. In the Regional Action Center for Rural Development in Zou, Benin, rural communities have formed together in voluntary associations to create cooperatives and provide general education for association members.

Many of the rural development centers use their youth programs as a way to impress upon youth that life in the rural areas can change. In addition, programs stress that manual and agricultural work are viable and respectable ways in which to earn one's living, and that through organized efforts, people in rural areas can come to control and use organizations and services to their benefit.

4. Summary: Responses to Employment Needs of Out-of-School Youth

1. A recurrent problem with most training programs for youth involved lack of adequate information as to the actual numbers of trained youth needed for a given situation. This problem was compounded by the unavailability or unreliability of statistics, hurriedly planned and executed programs and internal or external pressures. In some cases, this guesswork resulted in the overestimation of the need for training while in others certain skill areas were left unmet. Good common sense and earlier admonishments that "the only safe rule is to examine each local skill market and its future prospects before plunging into a new

training program"[22] were in growing evidence in many projects but are yet to reach a state of common practice. (YMCA/ORT Senegalese Integrated Vocational Project, El Salvador Urban Labor Training Project) Detailed studies of the modern informal sector by ILO teams in West and East Africa where local skills markets in specific urban settings have been assessed would seem a logical point of departure for the development of additional skills training programs. Such studies for rural areas are still generally lacking.

2. The project review would seem to confirm earlier held contentions that effective out-of-school youth programs must view "training" as only one component of the employment process. In situations where training has been viewed in light of its linkages with a specific job and attention has been called to the need of an integration of both on- and off-the-job training, projects have enjoyed greater success.

3. Linking skills development and vocational training to realistic needs of the youth population was observed as perhaps the most crucial factor in determining the success or failure of programs. The project review has considered some interesting examples of modifications and reincarnations of earlier programs, but few projects are of long enough duration or have sufficient extended funding to correct major deficiencies.

4. The location and scheduling of training were seen as critical factors impinging upon the success of skills training programs for out-of-school youth. Often, programs have attempted to strike up a delicate balance between on-the-job and off-the-job training and the length of training. In some cases, the opportunity costs of full time training, especially in the context of off-the-job training and training outside of the environment, proved to be too great to attract youth to training projects, or to entice their families to permit them to attend. In yet other cases, training at the end of a long day proved to be an additional burden to the already heavy schedule of women, youth and instructors.

5. The projects reviewed also support the growing concern that greater use be made of indigenous skill training systems. It was noted that the occupational skills required in both the modern and the traditional sectors of the economy are often, if not almost entirely, acquired informally. And in the case of the former, much of the trained manpower is provided by the informal sector. This was reported some years ago through the studies of

Callaway in Nigeria and has been substantiated in recent studies.

6. Youth with skills training appear to be more easily absorbed into the work force in urban areas than in rural areas. Such an observation may be due to the ability of the informal modern sector to accomodate large numbers of out-of-school youth. It would appear from the literature review as well that urban areas have a greater capacity for nurturing new skills development while rural areas have a lesser capacity for doing so.

7. Few skills training programs meet the basic education needs (literacy and numeracy) of out-of-school youth. Youth entering skills training programs bring a variety of levels of literacy with them. Because of lower rates of school participation in rural areas, it would seem that out-of-school youth programs in rural areas would, of necessity, have to be ready to remedy the basic education deficiencies of youth. From the project review, it is evident that there is a reluctance on the part of program planners and implementers to accept the responsibility for the "education" of out-of-school youth. It is the by-passing of the issue, which other researchers have noted as well, which contributes to the continued provision of services to the "lucky few" with schooling.

8. No matter what skills youth are learning, it would appear that there is a need for a managerial component to the skills training. Our examination of skills training programs, particularly in rural areas, uncovered a strong bias in this direction as technical and managerial roles are often played by the same individual in rural settings, both in agriculture and nonfarm activities.

9. The area of entrepreneurial training and the importance of such programs to the growth and development of rural areas is underscored by the projects reviewed. In most instances, youth acquiring entrepreneurial skills must also have access to provisions for credits to begin business, regular follow-up and a solid system of back-stopping services to assist them in securing raw materials, marketing, etc. A crucial role in entrepreneurial training programs was noted to be that of the small business extension agent. As the project review stresses, the existence of such technicians, who could suggest improvements to young businessmen and women, are a vital part of the backup services offered.

C. THE NEED FOR EQUAL ACCESS TO TRAINING/EDUCATION RESOURCES

One area which concerns youth as they perceive the world around them, whether it be in their village, city, country, region, or the rest of the world, is the growing disparities between the haves and have nots. This is especially apparent when they take a closer look at who has access to training opportunities or education and benefits that come to those favored by the system. This need for equal access to these resources is addressed in this section. Access to training can be defined as having the opportunity to develop skills, knowledge and attitudes through basically nonformal or out-of-school methods. Here, education can be either formal schooling (second chance schemes) or nonformal education projects.

This section initially looks at the access of youth to training and educational resources for meeting general needs. As noted earlier, all youth have the "right" to education--the kind, amount and purpose of this education still requires some thinking but the fundamental right has been established.

Coombs,[23] in his discussion of a basic learning package, outlines the need for:

--Positive attitudes toward cooperation with the help of one's family and community; toward work; and community and national development; and toward continued learning and ethical development.

--Functional literacy and numeracy to be able to read and comprehend a national newspaper or magazine, useful bulletins and other instructional type sheets; to write a letter to a friend or agency asking for information; and to handle important computations.

--Scientific outlook and an elementary understanding of the processes of nature especially as they pertain to youth's

own particular area as well as in relation to health, sanitation, crops, animals, nutrition; food storage and preparation; and to the environment and its protection.

--Functional knowledge and skills for raising a family and operating a household to include family health, family planning, child care, nutrition, sanitation, cultural activities and recreation; care of the sick and injured; shopping methods and use of money; making clothes and other goods for consumption; home repairs and environmental improvements; and growing and preserving family food.

In Coombs' listing he also includes functional knowledge and skills for earning a living and functional knowledge and skills for civic participation. Since the occupational world was addressed in the last section it will not receive much attention in this section except for the recognition that education/training and employment are closely linked and that one cannot really be addressed without looking at the other. The area of civic participation will be covered in the section which follows on participation needs of youth.

In considering the needs of youth in this section of the study, it is once again realized that programs and needs cannot be compartmentalized and it is not the intent of this paper to attempt to do so.

Coombs' listing has been modified slightly to incorporate the concept of positive attitudes throughout all of the discussions on needs as such attitudes are an integral part of each and every learning activity that occurs. In addition, a fourth section is presented which treats access to other opportunity structures including continued learning through second chance schemes, and the integration of vocational guidance into programs for out-of-school youth.

Equal access to education and training resources examines the differences between groups such as males and females, rural and urban youth, different age groups within the population and geographical differences.

1. Functional Literacy and Numeracy

Commentary: The significance of literacy in the education of out-of-school youth, and adults for that matter, lies in the assumption that in order to engage in modernization processes more educated people are needed. For this reason, literacy programs have tended to be more successful when tied to other aspects of training. And, as noted in an earlier section of this paper, when skills training has employment as its major goal, literacy programs as such have faded into relative insignificance. Even though literacy is viewed by many as basic to skills acquisition programs, there has been a general unwillingness to accept the responsibility for providing a basic education as part of such programs.

Few countries have mounted literacy training programs expressly for youth of the age group considered in this study. Many of the programs developed under Unesco's Experimental World Literacy Programme (1968-73) were selective in that they were geared to young adults. In the section which follows, particular attention is given to the role of literacy in programs for out-of-school youth in which literacy is oriented to the integration of minorities into the mainstream of national life.

Almost all countries consider literacy as one of the focuses of education, especially nonformal or out-of-school education of youth. Whereas in some countries it may be called adult education, (as in Bolivia) and literacy training for out-of-school youth in another, the basic concern remains. The distinguishing factor in many instances is that each government will prescribe variations in interpreting the concept--from being able to write one's own name to a level equivalent to the completion of a certain grade level of the formal school. The significance of literacy in the education of out-

of-school youth, and adults as well, lies in the assumption that in order to engage in modernization processes more educated people are required. However literacy is defined, it is considered as the minimum level of education which will enable people to take part in the development process.

Literacy programs in which youth have taken part as learners have been of a varied nature. These include mass literacy campaigns; functional literacy; the more traditional literacy programs; consciousness raising (ALFIN, Peru) and follow-up programs offered as a last attempt to secure literacy skills before youth enter the job market and leave what for many years was thought to be "the world of learning."

In a recent document[24] examining literacy work in the Andean Region of Peru, Chile, Equador and Bolivia, it was noted that the principle clients of literacy work in those areas were young adults over the age of 15. The study explains this concentration in light of activities for the non-schooled as well as follow-up for those youth with only a few years of formal education. The study also notes that most programs in the four countries are rural in orientation. Many of the urban programs are designed for newly arrived immigrants from rural areas. According to the report, there appears to be a relatively even mix in male/female participation in the programs with only a few programs, such as INDACEF (Bolivia) and the Secretaria de la Mujer (Chile) conducting programs only for women. In this section of the study, attention is given not to literacy programs connected with vocational training such as those generated

by Unesco's Experimental World Literacy Programme in the late 1960's and early 1970's. Instead, programs aimed at providing literacy skills for more general uses, particularly the integration of minorities into the "mainstream" of national life, will be discussed.

Although not explicitly for adults, the literacy programs of JAMAL (The Jamaican Movement for the Advancement of Literacy) represent one recent attempt to mobilize "marginal" human resources. Currently, some 100,000 people are being taught by some 11,000 volunteers in literacy centers established throughout the island. Since 1972, some 150,000 learners have progressed through JAMAL's programs. With its narrow focus on upgrading literacy skills, JAMAL's activities have not been without problems. There have been recurrent problems with finding enough volunteers to run the classes. Motivation of youth and adult illiterates to join the program has been a major problem as many prospective learners fail to see the connection between literacy and their work life.

Approaching a discussion of literacy programs for out-of-school youth in this way is not meant to diminish the importance of Unesco's functional literacy approach. The provision of vocational training has been amply treated in the foregoing section and as evidenced by those discussions, literacy was tied in many instances to skills training programs for youth as in the case of the FJA's in Upper Volta and the Youth Training Centers in Jamaica.

One particular program of interest in relation to the integration of religious minorities into the mainstream of national life is the Salam (Special Action for Literacy Advancement of Muslims)

Project in the Philippines. This program for clientele from basically four ethnic groups (the Manguindanao, Maranaw, Tausug and Samal) was sponsored by the Bureau of Public Schools of the federal government.

The project, which gives priority to those between the ages of 15 and 35, was launched as a means of informing the politically troubled Muslim population regarding government programs and policies. Teachers for the project were trained Muslim school teachers. Instruction was carried out in the languages of the four ethnic groups with the use of the Arabic script.

Two approaches were used in teaching literacy: functional literacy for youth and young adults and the use of Arabic script instruction in Grades I and II in the formal education system. It was felt that such coverage for adults and children would form the basis for a program which would more fully integrate Muslims into national life.

The Functional Literacy Program in Region II, Thailand was designed to reach illiterate youth and adults in Sano, Pattani Province, who did not speak the Thai language and were therefore felt to be only marginally participating in development efforts in the province. The program, which covered such topics as civic education, health, and home economics, was pilot in nature as it reached some 500 people out of a prospective clientele of some 200,000.

In Iran, the Saveh Project was developed to encourage the social and economic promotion of rural Iranian women and girls. Developed in an area of the country where there were large numbers

of Azeri speakers, the program also served to bring those women from a linguistic minority into classes where the medium of instruction was the Persian language.

Although initially designed for married women, the program attracted a large number of young girls who for religious and social reasons had not participated in the offerings of the formal school system. In some instances, entire classes were made up of females under the age of 25, a group which constituted the most economically active segment of the rural female population in the area as rug making was the major non-agricultural industry.

The program did have its economic facet, but organizers felt that the program's greatest contribution was the awakening of the women to a realization that they did play an active role in village life, and as such, they had the right to access to educational resources. Needless to say, the project was short lived for a variety of reasons, among them objections from husbands and fathers about their wives' and daughters' increased consciousness. One of the most salient gleanings from the project was the open realization that it is difficult to develop programs for one specific clientele within a community without developing parallel programs for other groups.

2. Scientific Outlook and an Elementary Understanding of the Processes of Nature

Commentary: Gill points out that "one of the main problems in the rural areas of less developed countries has been a lack of scientific attitude on the part of the people. As a result of the relative lack of appreciation of the contributions of science to productive processes and in daily living, the decisions (about the environment) are often made on the basis of non-rational, traditional, and often

superstitious thinking."[25]

> Many of the responses to the need for scientific outlook have been campaigns or one-shot attempts, as in the case of India's Youth Against Dirt and Disease program or the world-wide urban clean up campaigns conducted by Girl Guides and Boy Scouts. These programs solve the problems temporarily but in many cases do not aim at long-term preventive environmental conservation.
>
> Other countries are attempting to train personnel in agriculture and health to change attitudes and get young people involved in the process. Two programs in Guatemala, the Educación Basica Rural and a rural extension program, and the Nutritional Rehabilitation Centers of Tanzania attempt to meet long-term goals of this nature.
>
> Other countries are trying experimental programs to solve such diverse problems as aforestation (Lesotho and Kenya), better food storage (Tanzania), and improved water supply and storage (Benin).
>
> However, it is safe to conclude that these programs are few in number and much of the scientific understanding has been left to the science curriculum of the formal school system without integration into the life and activities of the community and nation.

"Development is linked in the minds of young people with the protection of the social and natural environment," was the theme which emerged from discussions at a meeting held by Unesco in 1972.[26] Although young people are not alone in drawing attention to these problems, they play an important role in calling attention to environmental concerns: rapid erosion, polluted water, single crop agriculture, or rapid extraction of mineral resources. Young people have felt the need to become involved in sounding the alarm on various activities but it was not until the focus on the "energy crisis" that government personnel have begun to take a good look at their environmental policies.

The ways in which governmental and private organizations have responded to these needs has been basically through community and development projects which have an environmental component. These

have taken place in rural as well as in urban areas and have involved a cross section of youth.

The youth of India held a Youth Against Dirt and Disease vacation camping program in 1974-75 which attempted to address several crucial issues: environmental sanitation; mass immunization and provision of potable water; popularization and construction of gobar gas/bio-gas plants; and other projects such as cleaning wells and drains. This vacation program proved successful in both rural and urban areas.

Save the Land Harambee, a five year aforestation program in Kenya, aims at creating active participation of children and adults in improving and conserving the environment. Before its end in 1982, the program will have provided employment for some 2,500 young people in planting and tending the 15 million trees to be set out.

In health related literature, writers do not always distinguish health programs as being different from extension education, community development, or basic education. However, one rural health extension program was developed in Guatemala which emphasizes training of auxiliary personnel, including health promoters, who are community volunteers trained in public health, sanitation, nutrition, first aid, and in the diagnosis and treatment of common diseases. Statistics were not available on the percentage of out-of-school youth who participated in this program but this is a type of training program where youth could participate in and be involved in the delivery of curative and preventive health.

Another program similar to the Guatemalan case is one which

comes from Tanzania--the Nutritional Rehabilitation Centers of the Lushoto Integrated Development project. The aim of the centers is to promote better health and nutritional practices. This is done through training mothers about nutrition and child care and training female school leavers to work in the Ujamaa villages as trainees in the area of nutrition and child care.

Another area related to this topic is in the field of agriculture and animal husbandry. If development is to be achieved, then future rural dwellers, farmers, craftspersons, and other rural producers need to appreciate that erosion is not caused by the wrath of a god or that a particular cattle disease has scientific causes. Many agricultural programs seek to address this need by introducing conservation, health and immunization programs for livestock, fertilizer use, and attitudinal change. One program of note here is the Educación Basica Rural (EBR) or Basic Village Education project in Guatemala. The project began in 1974 as an experimental program in agriculture for campesinos. Various communication media were used to promote change in agricultural practices and production among illiterate farmers. The target audience included the ladinos in the southeastern part of the country and the Quiché-speaking Indians in the western highlands. Several forms of communication were used in the pilot study: radio alone; radio with a trained and paid monitor working with listening groups or radio forums; and radio, monitor and forums in combination with an agricultural extension agent or trained agronomist to reinforce the messages and conduct demonstration lessons. In an early evaluation, it was determined that the

latter method was the most effective in terms of changing attitudes and providing new knowledge. It was felt that if this program were combined with other rural social services in the areas it would have a greater impact on the campesinos. However, it is worth noting here that the program bypasses literacy as a prerequisite for behavioral change.

4-H clubs around the world make the principles of scientific knowledge as it relates to agriculture available to rural youth. At the same time, the clubs attempt to bring about a more satisfying family and community life. However,it was found in Latin America that these programs were more effective when coupled with other community development projects existing in the area.

An example of this type of program in Africa existed in Benin through 4-H type clubs organized for boys and girls ages 13 to 20, 90% of whom were illiterate. These pre-cooperative organizations had land of their own. Through course work and practical training concentrated on land use, youth learned about animal husbandry, cash crops and rural crafts. In addition, they tackled the water supply problems of their villages by introducing draft animals to draw water, thus easing the burden that was placed on the women. Wells and storage tanks for water were constructed with the emphasis on involving women along with men in the development process.

Examples of similar projects include: clean-up campaigns in urban areas as was evidenced by Boy Scouts and Girl Guides in Nigeria and Ghana; a reforestation project in Lesotho which involved a large percentage of out-of-school youth in rural areas; and a grain storage

program in Tanzania.

3. Functional Knowledge and Skills for Raising a Family and Operating a Household

Commentary: The programs examined in this section cover a wide range of activities reflecting different thinking about the roles of males and females in a given country and region. In some countries, females are given little option for training outside the traditional programs for enhancing their roles in the family as mothers and housewives. Examples of these programs are found in countries where women still hold a traditional place in the home and family: Morocco, Tunisia, and the Cameroon.

However, the traditional role of women is shifting so that many women are acting as heads of the households or major contributors to the household income, and such traditional programs are not satisfying their needs. For the 43% of the Filipino women who are major contributors to their household income, or the women of Guayaquil, Ecuador, who make up 50% of the heads of household, skills are needed in order to generate income along with helping with household management. Examples of these programs are being created in the Caribbean and Southern Africa.

And where societies acknowledge males as major contributors in family life and household management, then programs that were created for women have had to develop curricula that cater to men also. The Thailand literacy program and certain programs in Iran are good examples of this shift in thinking and programs that have had to respond to this change.

Family life education needs are also being met through community development programs and literacy programs in Colombia, and Indonesia where a large proportion of women are illiterate. The diverse programming that is occurring in this area points to the necessity to consider individual needs and roles within a social and economic context.

Much of what has been mentioned in previous sections on literacy and numeracy and environmental education can be integrated into our discussion of the skills, knowledge and attitudes necessary for family life education. Many of the needs that youth have in this area are related, in a wider context, to other areas including employment and community development.

To discuss the needs of youth for this particular area there are several questions and issues that must be raised:

--is it traditional to have only females in such programs?

--are there attempts being made for instruction for males?

--are there cultural constraints for such programming?

--what are the differences between rural and urban needs? and

--what are the differences in needs between those women who are bearing children and those who are preparing for other roles?

In most traditional societies these needs are usually expressed in terms of the females in that society. It is their role to take care of the needs of the family and the household, and, therefore, it is they who have the need for access to education and training as well as to information regarding the improvement of their role. Examples of programmatic responses to this view include:

The Foyers Feminins (women's centers) of Morocco were developed as a large scale program to train girls and women in home economics, child care, and literacy. Many of the centers located in rural areas represent the only contact girls and women have with modern practices and concepts.

A parallel program in Morocco is the Promotion Nationale which runs centers for women who leave the state school system, particularly at the point of transition from primary to secondary school. Its courses are designed to cover a three-year period. Training for girls is offered in home economics and various specialized crafts and skills to enable them to get jobs. One of the major obstacles to the progress of women's programs in Morocco is that

there is little coordination between these two programs and they are often in competition with each other in many areas.

Another program to assist rural women was developed in Tunisia. The Centers for Rural Girls attracted the 12-18 year-old age group and provided skills for better home and family life and literacy. "Generally it has been found that girls who received this training are considered more desirable marriage partners than their untrained peers."[27]

Both of these programs represent large scale programs to train rural females in family life education skills. In the Cameroon, the Holy Family Center for Female Instruction is an example of the use of local initiative and resources for the purpose of training young girls to become modern housewives. Other similar programs appear in Jamaica, India, Mali, and Ecuador.

Attempts have been made to extend this instruction to males. A good example of this is the Functional Literacy Program in Thailand. This program focuses on family life planning and includes: earning a living, family economics and consumer education, health and family planning, and civic responsibility. In samples taken in 1971-72, two-thirds of the students were males and approximately 30% were from the age group 15-24. Participants in the literacy classes are provided with information and facts to enable them to understand why existing conditions are problems and how those problems affect their lives. Alternatives are explored and the implications of adopting these alternatives are examined.

The concepts are taught through group discussion which takes

advantage of the natural learning environment of the Thais, who often gather in the evenings to chat about family and village problems. The clientele for these functional literacy/family life education programs vary in age, sex, marital status, and academic backgrounds. Included are adults and youth who have never attended school, dropouts from the formal school, and primary school graduates who have relapsed into illiteracy. The Department of Nonformal Education is presently trying to find a way to include more females in the programs which is contrary to the concerns of most family life education program planners. The Department feels that the men have a more compelling reason to earn a literacy certificate because of their desire to find a job while the female is preoccupied with the home and would not attend such classes. Cultural factors might be examined here to try and assess the involvement of the Thai man in the life of the family.

Another example of this type of program and the accompanying cultural implications occurred in Iran. The National Committee for World Literacy began a program for women in family life education and literacy. When the husbands and brothers of the women who were attending the classes realized what was being taught to their sisters, wives, and mothers, they quickly raised a protest and eventually they were included in a parallel literacy/family life education program. Looking at another Iranian example, the Saveh program was designed for women in the areas of family life education, income generation, and cooperatives. When their male counterparts learned of the success of these women, the program was discontinued.

The difference between rural and urban needs in relation to family life education might be best illustrated by looking at tasks performed by rural and urban women. Many of these tasks appear to be the same but the amount of time and energy spent on each task depends upon the economic and social setting of the woman. The chart on the following page represents urban and rural activities in selected countries in Africa, South and East Asia, Latin America and in regions of Arab influence. Women in Latin America and Arab countries have a cultural heritage which favors women's confinement within the domestic sphere. The flow of young women to the towns is high because there is little agricultural work holding them to the rural areas. In South and East Asia, women perform a large share of agricultural work and play an active role in the towns as well. In Africa, women need their daughters from about age 10 until marriage to take care of the household duties and the younger children while they themselves work in the fields. It should be noted here, that while generalizations can sometimes be made about countries and regions, individual women within these countries have different sets of needs. This situation underscores the necessity for individual programming in response to these diverse needs.

A crucial area is that in which the role of mother and housewife is combined with that of sole breadwinner for the family as well. It is not uncommon in Lesotho, Botswana, and Swaziland for young women to constitute a high percentage of the resident population as the males emigrate outside of the country in search of employment. Therefore, an immediate need for these women is felt to

WOMEN'S ACTIVITIES IN VILLAGE AND TOWN

Percentage distribution of adult women by activity groups

	All Rural Areas				All Urban Areas		
Country:	Agriculture	Other economic activities	Domestic activities	Total	Economic activities	Domestic activities	Total
Africa South of the Sahara:							
Ghana	38	28	34	100	54	46	100
Benin	17	57	26	100	66	34	100
Region of Arab influence:							
Morocco	6	2	92	100	18	82	100
Jordan	24	3	73	100			100
South and East Asia:							
India	44	8	48	100	17	83	100
Sri Lanka			78	100	13	87	100
Burma				100	31	69	100
Thailand				100	42	58	100
Indonesia	35	11	54	100	24	76	100
Philippines	18	15	67	100	32	68	100
Latin America:							
El Salvador			90	100	33	67	100
Costa Rica	1	8	91	100	30	70	100
Venezuela	3	7	90	100	26	74	100
Dominican Republic	3	16	81	100	29	71	100

Note: The comparability of the figures may be somewhat distorted because of differences in the extent to which part-time activities are included, this affects particularly the percentages for rural areas.

Source: Boserup, E. Woman's Role in Economic Development. New York. St. Marten's Press, 1970, p. 188, from statistics from the Yearbook of Labor Statistics (after 1960.)

be that of learning the means of being self-supporting in addition to their other family responsibilities. Many programs catering to such needs involve training in family and home care as well as skills for helping young women establish their own food processing businesses as well as the more traditional areas of knitting, sewing, and crafts. Similar programs are also in operation in the Caribbean, West Africa, and Latin America, as well as in southern Africa.

In addition, many programs designed for community development include family life education components as in the examples of ACPO in Colombia, PENMAS activities in Indonesia, and the Sarvodaya Movement in Sri Lanka. Many women's organizations also conduct family life education programs for rural and urban women such as those present in Kenya, Mali and Sri Lanka. It is not clear though what percentage of their clientele is out-of-school youth and whether or not the needs of this age group are being specifically addressed.

How much access young people have to other related programs such as National Family Planning programs, health education, nutrition and consumer education has not been ascertained. Exploration of this area is necessary to find out if the policies and programming of such organizations cater to the needs of the growing population of out-of-school youth.

Generalizations cannot be made about the content and aims of such programs for rural and urban youth because family and household responsibilities might be different depending upon marital status or responsibility to the households in which they live and are a part.

The young men and women of today are being exposed to different expectations, choices, and aspirations and may not consider family life education a primary need in their early teens. As well, their counterparts who are already mothers and fathers may have other needs. And, many out-of-school youth still look to increased training and educational opportunities and may choose to pursue new roles in their changing society.

4. Access to Other Opportunity/Educational Structures

Commentary: There still exists, in most countries, the need for young and old alike, to gain certification through formal schooling as a way of achieving recognition within the educational and economic sectors. Second chance schemes are providing this equivalency for those who desire to have another chance. For many countries, this is done through correspondance courses. Due to the high dropout/noncompletion rates, other methods are being tried that involve face to face contact with a teacher or facilitator, as in the case of Lesotho Distance Teaching Center and the Thai Equivalency Program.

Another opportunity that needs to be made accessible to young people is some type of vocational guidance. This is felt to be a way of making the best of the human resources of a country and community and to help individuals attain their potential. Many countries are experimenting with this notion. Some are finding that it is an idea worth pursuing through the integration of vocational guidance with current out-of-school youth programs. The Lagos Opportunities Industrialization Centers, the Caribbean Youth Camps, Kenya YWCA Programs, ZAAC of the Cameroon, and the Prevocational Program in Sri Lanka all list guidance or counseling as a goal of their programs. To extend vocational guidance principles and information to others in the community such as parents and youth, the Thailand Nonformal Education Centers have projected the use of guidance counselors in their provincial centers.

Some of the needs of out-of-school youth obviously go beyond what Coombs had outlined such as the need for certification and vocational guidance. This section addresses such needs.

a. Second-Chance and School Equivalence Opportunities

For youth who have "dropped out" or been "pushed out" of the formal system there is often a desire to have another chance to be able to gain a certificate that might have been lost through financial problems, family and home responsibilities, and lack of access to schooling. In many countries "certification" is still the only way of gaining access to many employment opportunities and/or training and vocational programs. And, as long as society uses such certificates as a way of measuring the success or failure of its members, there will be a need to provide opportunities for these young people to prove their worth and gain recognition through second-chance schemes.

Examples of such programming include the Lesotho Distance Teaching Center and the Thailand Post Literacy Academic Equivalency Program.

The Lesotho Distance Teaching Center was developed to provide basic rural education, to provide correspondence courses for out-of-school youth and adults, and to act as a service agency for other organizations providing nonformal education. The second program is for former students who want to have a second chance and to continue their education through correspondence. Many of the participants are from rural areas and do not have access to the formal school system or cannot gain reentry into regular schools. The students in these courses may work on certificates at the Junior level (jr. high school) and "O" levels (senior high school) in such courses as book-keeping and commerce, agricultural science, and mathematics. Students

are reached through correspondence lessons, radio programming and tutorials which include weekend courses.

The Thailand Post Literacy Academic Equivalency Program gives academic credentials for those persons who wish to complete formal school qualifications outside the normal primary and secondary school. This is especially popular among young people under the age of 20 who for some reason had to drop out of school. The curriculum is the same as in the formal schools although attempts are being made to make it more functional. Candidates must be over the age of 15 so that compulsory age students will not leave regular school to attend these classes. The clientele is drawn from both rural and urban areas with 60% being from the 16-20 year old age group. Students come from varied backgrounds, with monks forming half of the group in 1972. "While there are attempts to attract students from other occupations, it is the Division policy to support and promote education for monks who can provide spiritual and moral guidance and also work as teachers as adult classes in rural areas often lack qualified teachers."[28] As a follow-up exercise to this face to face instruction, the Division is further developing this option through the use of radio.

b. Vocational Guidance and Support Services

Vocational guidance and support services are often thought of as concepts reserved for advanced industrial and commercial countries; a sophisticated concept of individual counseling, aptitude testing, highly trained personnel, career planning and placement

services. In developing countries with high population rates and high unemployment among youth such aims and programs may not be realistic. But, it is realistic to think in terms of helping young people find work that they will enjoy and do well. And, it is realistic to help youth find educational resources that may provide the maximum benefit for them and their own particular situation whether it be nonformal/out-of-school education, formal schooling, or other forms of skill training and development.

Vocational guidance can help youth to understand themselves as they attempt to relate to the world of work:

> Young people may need to be helped to appreciate that only some, with the requisite effort to qualify, are likely to realize their talents and interests in more modern attractive occupations of their choice, whereas others will find their fate determined more by chance and circumstances than by planned and appropriate use of their capabilities.[29]

Other needs that a vocational guidance program could address include:

--the need for youth to have access to information (about their strengths and weaknesses; about opportunities in modern, informal and traditional sectors; about training and educational opportunities; about their role in the family and in the community)

--the need for youth to have a productive forum to discuss the frustrations of alienation, transition, societal changes and rising expectations, the "generation gap" and the lack of control they feel they have over their lives.

--the need for youth to have access to skills which will prepare them for the world of work (applying, interviewing and asking questions)

--the need for youth to have a service that will support their entrance into the world of work (for women as they take on new roles in nontraditional jobs; for rural youth as they enter into self-employment; for urban youth as they enter into the informal market for the first time)

--youth need skills to carry out positive and productive relationships that will foster peer acceptance and community development.

The individual needs of youth should be considered within the context of the larger developmental needs of a community or nation.

> If people do not know what needs to be done, or will not do it, or want to do things which they cannot do, many will find themselves in work they cannot do well, or in which they are unhappy, or will be unemployed even when there could be work for them, whilst the country will suffer from work done badly and without pride, or from the loss of national wealth when work which could be done remains undone.[30]

Vocational guidance services should be thought of as responses to needs of different segments of the population. The primary participants in vocational guidance services would be the youth themselves. Youth must be helped to understand the ratio of competition to opportunity in popular occupations and accept the situation of selection. It is they who need help in thinking about their own needs and how those needs coincide with what their village and country need.

Many developing countries have begun to use vocational guidance services for students in the secondary school system. Guidance services in countries like Senegal, Zambia, and Ghana take the form of training teachers to provide group and individual career counseling for secondary school students. Counseling is usually done for those about to leave school and provides information about tertiary education, modern sector employment opportunities, and other skill/training opportunities. Some incorporate interest testing and vocational skills tests as part of their programs. Recently, programs

in Lesotho and Botswana have tried to extend their services to school leavers through the use of career guidance radio.

For out-of-school youth, the provision of guidance services has been weak and not always implemented as planned: "The recognition is growing that if training is not to be a 'second-best' but a practical and worthwhile alternative to (formal) education-relevant or not--then vocational guidance services is an acceptable and welcome service."[31] While little attention was given to such programs in the 1960's, the 1970's have seen an increasing number of vocational training centers incorporate guidance services into their programs. Some of those which the International Labor Organization (ILO) has recognized and has had associations with were in the Sudan and in Tanzania. Swaziland has included career guidance into its Second National Development Plan. Morocco and Gabon have paid special attention to testing procedures to ascertain the vocational suitability of persons with little formal educational background.

Examples of other programs include:

--The Lagos Opportunities Industrialization Center which was developed as a pre-vocational feeder program which lists as its goals: motivation, assessment, orientation, counseling, and referral.

--The Caribbean Youth Camps in Dominica, Trinidad, Jamaica and Guyana state as one of their purposes: a concern for the trainee as an individual with his particular personal qualities and problems.

--The Kenya YWCA Training Program for Girls lists placement as one of their services and the YMCA out-of-school youth program in Dakar, Senegal incorporates vocational guidance through placement and counseling for specific vocational streams, and follow-up support and services once the person is "on the job."

--As mentioned earlier, the ZAAC program in the Cameroon has realized that with the addition of counseling, women's participation may be increased.

--The Prevocational Program in Sri Lanka includes information gathering skills on occupations and activities to help young people develop a feeling of confidence and pride in their ability to carry out a specific skill.

--Malaysia conducted a career guidance campaign as part of National Youth Week to identify career opportunities and capabilities.

At another level, vocational guidance must include other groups besides the youth themselves. Although it is recognized that youth should be the ultimate receivers of such a service, their parents and other elders in the village or youth leaders/programmers should not be left out of this process. This could take the form of giving information on the content and availability of jobs/work, needs of the labor market, and the consequences of work at various levels. Village discussions could be focused around such topics to raise the awareness level of the adults.

In addition, those dealing with programming must be informed. In Thailand, for example, the Department for Nonformal Education, has planned to have career counselors in each of the 72 provincial nonformal education centers which will serve as resource and information services not only to nonformal education trainers but to the youth, adults, and community leaders. "Increasingly, governments have accepted that there is basically no contradiction between the egalitarian, popular, and democratic spirit sought by an educational and training system and a carefully mounted mechanism designed to assist the individual, as much as the educational establishment and the

employing organization, to choose the most appropriate training and employment."[32]

5. Summary: Responses to Needs for Equal Access to Training and Education Resources

1. Literacy for literacy's sake is a concept that seems in question in many of the programs reviewed. Literacy programs which seem to be the most beneficial were those linked to the acquisition of other skills or knowledge: managerial skills, family life education, vocational training, health education.

2. It was noted that literacy programs associated with a political ideology or with efforts to integrate minority groups into the mainstream of national life were seen as areas of growing national concern.

3. Responses to programs dealing with needs related to scientific understanding were usually aimed at short term goals which reflected larger, more global responses to environment concerns. Patterns of thinking have often been in response to crises while long-term planning and predicting has been left out of program development.

4. The projects reviewed did illustrate ways in which out-of-school youth became actively involved in their physical environment through training as health or agricultural extension agents. Programs utilizing youth as a resource to save the environment through development of positive attitudes, knowledge, and skills seem to be making a successful attempt at integrating that process with community life.

5. Family life education programs for out-of-school youth have traditionally catered to improving the role of women in their capacities as mothers and housewives. Current social and economic changes have placed women in situations where they often need to make contributions to the family income. This particular set of needs has become manifest in new family life education programs which incorporate income-generating skill acquisition.

6. It was noted that programs in family life education which were not reality based or geared to a particular area/region had less chance of success. Males, as well as females, are major contributors to family management and child care in many localities and must therefore be included in family life education programs.

7. Second chance schemes for out-of-school youth have become a hope for many young persons who were "pushed out" or who had dropped out of the formal system. For students seeking "certification," programs which incorporate an element of personal interaction between teacher/facilitator and students have become more widely used and seem to yield a higher participation rate than traditional correspondance courses.

8. Many countries are becoming increasingly aware of the need for vocational guidance as a way of increasing the potential contribution of out-of-school youth. More and more programs are seeking to integrate an element of vocational guidance--placement, counseling, and/or support services--into existing programs.

D. PARTICIPATION NEEDS OF OUT-OF-SCHOOL YOUTH

Commentary: In this section of the paper, participation needs of out-of-school youth are discussed. Participation is viewed as both a means and an end for out-of-school youth. As a means, participation offers youth greater control over their lives and the improvement of their lot in life. As an end, participation provides the psychic satisfaction of having a share in the control of one's environment and the structure of power.

This section suggests form elements of participation applicable to out-of-school youth programs. In considering participation needs, stress is placed on the importance of viewing participation as defined by the program context and not from the context of those doing the planning. Projects reviewed stress participation in the local context and raise questions about the general nature of youth participation.

The participation needs of out-of-school youth have more often than not been viewed in terms of political participation. As stressed earlier in this study, educated and uneducated unemployed out-of-school youth have discovered the potential power of their own force. They have gained political participation in the form of the right to vote and have taken it in the form of open protest in the streets.

But, in the context of this paper and the projects reviewed, participation is taken to mean more than political participation in

the narrow sense of voting and voicing one's demands. In the developing countries, the mainstays of youth policy have long been participation and greater responsibility, both concepts which have merged to some extent in that there can be no responsibilities without participation. And, participation implies the assumption of duties as well as the assertion of rights.

In developing countries, however, the concepts of participation, and the means of participation are often based on the rhetoric of participation being used in the developed countries. There are many who question the application of those concepts, particularly in educational projects in less developed countries. Because of the sometimes alien nature of the concept and the way in which it is presented, youth are much less interested in participation than its benefits and their use.

In out-of-school youth programs, the participation needs of youth are seen as relating to community and national development and involvement. Programs include those which provide opportunities for developing leadership and decision making, as well as those which offer youth information about the political and social environment. Through such programs, youth participate in affairs which affect their lives. At the same time, they are provided with an opportunity to learn about their country and its relationship with the rest of the world.

1. Responses to Participation Needs of Out-of-School Youth

Programs range from the Future Citizen's Schools which were run by the YMCA for under-privileged boys and girls in Ethiopia to Citizenship and Leadership Training Centers in Lagos to the youth camp schemes of the Caribbean, West and East Africa, and of South Asia.

The youth camps, such as those in Guyana, Jamaica and Trinidad and Tobago, teach agriculture, technical skills, social training civic responsibility and employment generating activities. Those in Africa and Asia have also offered specific skills training but have been more production oriented than their Caribbean counterparts which have stressed social service.

Youth camps were a phenomenon of the 1960's, with many of them being organized as a direct reaction to the large numbers of unemployed youth at the time of independence. From their inception, the ability of many of the camps to place youth in positions of employment has been critically questioned. Additional concerns arose over the success of the camps at giving youth employable and realistic skills. Other concerns have been related to the high costs of operating the camps in relation to the small numbers of youth actually served by them. And, frequent criticism of youth camps has come from youth themselves who claim that the camps are only a political gesture in which they have no say.

In all cases, the major focus of youth camp training has been toward activities geared to male youth and stresses their role in future leadership of the country. As yet, girls have not received the

same kind of attention when it comes to leadership training and decision making education/skill training.

The value of the camps derives from combining training with general education activities to encourage social responsibility and the development of individual personality. Advocates of the camps stress that the experience helps youth to become more mature and develop a greater pride in themselves and in their country and community. Second, the camps are seen as offering skills directly applicable to employment, like farming, carpentry, service occupation skills or craft training.

Continued existence has meant, in some instances, radical transformation. The Jamaican Youth Camps have seen the need, with time, to change their focus and to vary the trade training which have been offered. Some camps went the route of settlement schemes, in which participants were involved in the direct building of the camps, which in turn became their village.

Another type of youth organization which aims to bridge the gap between the rhetoric of participation and everyday realities while fostering pride and involvement is the concept of the voluntary service program. Such programs usually cater to that portion of the out-of-school youth population who have completed secondary school and are required, either by law or their desire to enter tertiary education, to complete a period of national service. The Jamaica National Youth Service and the Iranian Sepahi-Danesh, and similar organizations in India and Guyana, fall into this category.

The assertion that there are specific participation needs of

out-of-school youth is not meant in any way to negate the value of past participation of youth. Yet, it is important to realize that all have not shared in this participation. This fact remains a source of concern for those in power who realize that the participation of youth and their particular demands are aspects of political life with which one must reckon. In situations where resources are too small to permit widespread distribution of benefits, where unemployment is a fact of life for youth, and where there is general discontent with the reward system, it is little wonder that youth debate the values of orderly change in contrast with the more immediate results of disruptive social change.

Participation needs of out-of-school youth, it is contended, can be viewed in light of youth's participation in four elements of out-of-school youth programs:

--participation in decision making, particularly in three kinds of decisions: initial decisions about needs, priorities and goals (initial decisions to begin a program); ongoing decisions about needs, priorities and goals (decisions to continue a program); and operational decisions about membership, meetings, leadership and control of program personnel.

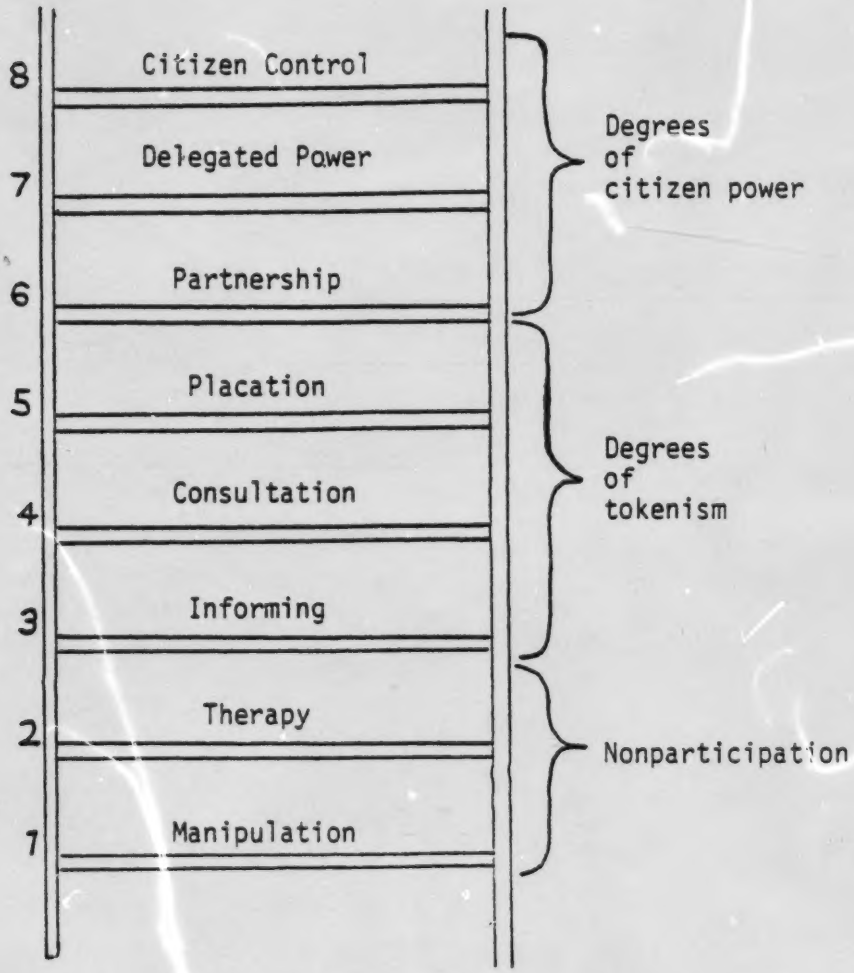
--participation in implementation, particularly in three kinds of activities: resource contributions, both as workers and through contributions in kind and cash; administration as employees of a program and as members of project related committees; and enlistment in programs and demonstrated willingness to respond positively to the program offerings.

--participation in the benefits of a program: material, social, personal consequences of involvement in the program;

--participation in evaluation, particularly in three kinds of activities: project centered evaluation, both formative and summative; political activities such as voting, lobbying and demonstrating; and public opinion efforts related to the continuation or modification of the program.[33]

Implicit in each of the elements above is a view of participation as both a means and an end. As a means it offers the individual greater control over his/her life and the improvement of one's living conditions. As an end, it provides the psychic satisfaction of having a share in the control of one's environment and the structure of power.

In each of the four areas of participation mentioned above, the interest is in securing more than token participation. Instead, there is a concern for participation in which youth are engaged in partnership, delegation of power and "youth" control of activities. Gill, in "Education for the Rural Youth: Some Programs of Determining Learning Needs"[34] suggests the use of a ladder of citizen participation, as developed by Arnstein, in the determination of learning needs of youth in rural areas and their participation in program design and implementation. On the ladder, there are three degrees of participation: non-participation, token participation and participation. As can be seen from the drawing below, non-participation is of two kinds, manipulation and therapy. Token participation is of three kinds, informing, consulting and placation while participation is of three kinds, partnership, delegated power and citizen control.



Source: Sherry Arnstein, "A ladder of citizen participation," American Institute of Planners Journal, July 1969.

Implicit in the above framework for participation is the need for the development of a wide range of mechanisms, institutions and organizations at all social levels to assure that youth have the opportunity to communicate and articulate their demands effectively and to enable governments to respond effectively to those demands. Such a need would imply a process of two way communication, a rarity

in programs for out-of-school youth.

What seems important in examining programs for out-of-school youth is the search for considerations of "native" concepts of participation whereby the involvement of relevant individuals and institutions are secured in decision making that concerns the community. Before suggesting new modes and procedures for gaining participation of youth and those around them in educational programs, traditional methods for enlisting participation should be examined.

The approach to presenting responses to the increased needs for participation of youth in this section deviates from those used in the foregoing sections. Two project profiles involving high degrees of youth participation in out-of-school youth projects are presented. Each has been prepared from the perspective of individuals closely related to the projects and reflects their views of the activities involved. The first case, that of a pilot project, the Village Level Functional Literacy Project, the Gambia, deals with one group's attempt to involve out-of-school youth as village facilitators in literacy courses for other out-of-school youth. The second case is that of the Kuliah Kerja Nyata, the Indonesian Students' Study and Service Scheme, in which students from higher education participate in village level development schemes. It is felt that the two cases will serve to illustrate how particular projects and project organizers chose to address the need for greater participation of youth in programs directed at their increased involvement in community and national development. Each of the projects has come to realize the importance of placing value on traditional views of life in

rural areas in securing youth participation.

a. Gambian Functional Literacy Program for Out-of-School Youth

In 1978-79, 25 young village school-leavers and 500-700 non-schooled village youth (ages 14-30) in The Gambia, participated in a 15-village functional literacy pilot project directed by the Gambian National Literacy Advisory Committee (NLAC). The NLAC, largely a voluntary group of representatives from various Gambian rural-extension services, implemented the project to test 3 major principles for possible later application in a national literacy program:

--Literacy programs which are aimed at out-of-school villagers should be globally functional in nature, directly aimed at the many interests of village communities.

--The local languages should be used in the literacy program, so that village learners who are exposed to very little English will absorb and remember ideas more efficiently and so that they will be emotionally less inhibited and more active, rather than passive, in the learning process. (An official Government literacy program could provide adequate reading materials in those local languages.)

--Local village school-leavers should serve as literacy facilitators wherever possible, in order to further promote community reliance on its own resources and to take advantage of the vested interest which a villager is likely to have in working for the welfare of his neighbors and family. The facilitator would, in turn, receive a new status within the community as a youth leader as well as a new source of income, in the form of cash or in-kind payments from class members.

The Committee explained its ideas for a pilot project to 15 village communities and asked villagers to select the 25 young male school-leavers who were to serve as facilitators. (The Committee found no female school-leavers in the villages because until recently parents did not, for religious/cultural reasons, allow girls to attend the government schools in those areas.) These facilitators had no

other salaried jobs and lived with their families and worked on family farms.

Basic training in literacy-teaching methods and in principles of rural community development was provided to the facilitators. These 2-3 week training sessions were normally carried out in a selected project village where, it was felt, skills could be related directly during training to literacy-class interests and real village conditions. In such villages, the trainees could also receive moral support for their efforts from villagers who were actively participating in ongoing functional literacy classes.

Basic-level reading materials were designed, printed, and distributed by the Committee, with the intention that the materials would first teach basic reading and writing to the classes, and that more functional materials would be provided when learner interests and reading abilities were more clearly identified.

Initially, classes were enthusiastic and class members attended meetings 4-5 nights per week. Students and facilitators were able to complete their studies of the basic reading books within 6-8 months. The classes selected their own class committees to handle necessary class affairs, and the classes agreed to operate small farms in order to generate income from which to provide a small salary for the facilitator and funds for small classroom expenses. The Committee hoped to thus promote self-reliance among the classes, by helping the learners to manage and finance their own learning activities, while providing the classes with opportunities to learn practical new skills and attitudes related to such interests as agriculture, health,

and small business.

While these classes initially included a significant percentage (25%) of older (age 25-45) male villagers, their involvement gradually declined, as the classes as a whole began to encounter problems: at the end of the first year, 50% of the initial enrollees had dropped out. Classes no longer maintained the school farms. Supervision for facilitators and supplies of reading materials from the Committee were nonexistent and facilitators became discouraged by slow learner progress and lack of material reward for their efforts. (The Committee had intentionally not provided salaries for facilitators, on the above-described grounds of promoting village self-reliance.) Seeing little material gains coming from their efforts, both learners and facilitators began to doubt the practicality of expending their efforts for the learning of literacy, particularly local-language literacy which was not yet commonly used in print or officially sanctioned by the main source of employment, the government.

The Committee was aware of these problems, and new efforts were made to solve them. Additional staff and equipment were provided to increase supervision and training for facilitators and to design and produce more advanced and relevant reading materials. Funding was procured so that classes could have adequate resources to undertake "earn-while-you-learn" income-generating class projects. Committee members made promotional visits to the villages to urge the classes to have patience and to talk directly with villagers to identify solutions for the many problems.

The Committee was not so readily able to deal with the ques-

tion of whether the young class members were really absorbing this functional education into their lives, or were just going through the motions of learning until the novelty wore off. The Committee felt that not only should literacy and technical skills be promoted through group exercises, but class members should be learning to identify their own problems and interests as they arose, and then taking the initiative to solve those problems.

This was why the Committee decided to promote the use of local facilitators and class committees, and why the Committee's field staff held regular discussions with community members regarding class and community interests. Despite these arrangements, learner initiative in the classes remained low, however, and project staff found it necessary to take care of most of the class problems themselves.

The Committee eventually decided that the classes needed a greater economic incentive for joining actively in the project. Thus, new efforts were made to organize the income-generating class projects referred to earlier. But some Committee observers saw that planning for income-related activities in villages had traditionally required the leadership of the community elders in the making of decisions about the planning and implementing of the activity. Deference was by this tradition given to the decisions of these elders, and youth had little experience in deciding the course of the kinds of important matters (of income-generating projects, etc.) now being introduced to the classes by the Committee.

Thus, the kind of learner initiative and decision making

hoped for by the Committee was hampered by the fact that youth could not, in that village society, make such important decisions by themselves. Instead, the elders had to be more directly involved in the planning of class activities, if learners were to benefit from the opportunities being presented to them by the Committee.

To apply this Gambian experience to the general question of the role of "participation" in programs for out-of-school youth, we would state that planners of such programs must be aware of the cultural implications of promoting decision making and subsequent earning of income among village youth. That is, income related decisions and activities in many cultures are largely controlled by elders who might themselves not be direct participants in the development project. If planners then push their ideas for a "participatory approach to income-generating activities for youth" upon village communities, elders might resist the project and youth will be left without the support they need from their elders. To avoid such unnecessary and destructive division of communities, the culture's decision making process should be carefully investigated. Both elders and youth will need to be consulted to seek ways to involve both groups in the planning, implementation, and rewards of the proposed income-generating activity. The culture's own decision making process has evolved to its present form over centuries, for very good economic reasons.

Without the support of their elders, youth in communities such as those in the above example will withdraw their own support from the project. In some cases in which youth are alienated from the support of their elders, the youth might "hold on" to the project

for a while longer if external sources provide material incentives to hold up the project, but such a process will only promote dependence of the youth on outside sources, and the project goal of participation and self-reliance will not be met. Even the more purely technical aspects of the project will fail since the people involved will not have the interest and faith necessary to maintain the project.

b. Indonesia Student's Study Service Scheme

The Indonesia Student's Study Service Scheme is a part of regular or intra-curricular program of the universities to increase and strengthen their sense of responsibility for the development of rural communities. Under this scheme, all students of higher education from both state and private institutions spend between three to six months working in village level development activities as part of their curriculum.

The scheme, which is called the Kuliah Kerja Nyata (KKN), aims at achieving a number of interrelated objectives, of which the most important are:

--Making the educated more employable: Many unemployed and under-employed graduates migrate to the towns and cities while rural areas are drained of their educated manpower and educated leadership. The students' KKN experience is thought to help break down negative attitudes toward rural areas and create more realistic expectations while encouraging graduates to seek or accept employment away from major towns or in the outer islands. It also helps them to develop initiative, self confidence and problem-solving ability, so that they are more willing and able to undertake employment in new and unfamiliar fields of work.

--Providing potential members of the labor force with rural development experience: KKN is providing a steadily increasing supply of employable candidates for government services (and other positions). This is particularly true

in the area of social welfare, especially for those who have practical experience working in rural development and related problems.

--Helping meet the urgent need for village-level change agents and extension workers: The extension services seeking to foster rural development are the weakest at the most crucial point, the village level. For Indonesia's 58,000 villages, there are virtually no fulltime extension workers. Even at the sub-district level, extension services are thinly staffed, often with only one extension worker from a particular field to meet the needs of the sub-district, which contains on an average of 17 villages and a population of nearly 40,000.

Following a brief period of training, the KKN participants are assigned to cross sectoral community development workers at the village level, where they help the village chief in planning and implementing local development efforts. They also help the village community in involving the various extension services actively in village development and in coordinating their work. Among other things, the students are involved in health care, education, agricultural extension, animal husbandry, village administration, family planning, nutrition, transmigration/resettlement, irrigation, reforestation, erosion control, and nonformal education.

--Providing nonformal education: Nonformal education is now seen as one way to better meet the education needs of Indonesia's 135 million population which cannot be met through formal education. With its network of village level workers, the KKN is becoming one of the major tools for nonformal education in Indonesia.

--Encouraging a cross-sectoral approach to development: Development in Indonesia suffers from insufficient cooperation and coordination amongst the various Departments involved. This tendency to independent operation is reinforced by the recruitment of new personnel from graduates who, during their education, have little or no experience in working with people of other disciplines.

By being assigned as cross-sectoral workers with responsibility to work in all development activities relevant to their village, the student participants in the KKN are forced to seek advice and assistance from their fellow students of other disciplines, and at various levels in order to enable them to cope with the development needs outside their own fields of study. From this personal need to work closely with people of other disciplines, it is hoped that the habit of cross-sectoral cooperation can be developed.

--Catalyzing change in education: Important as these objectives are, the crucial aspect of the KKN is its potential to catalyze changes in education. By exposing students to the realities of Indonesia's development problems as part of their curriculum, and by challenging them to help seek solutions, the KKN is thought to substantially and directly increase the relevance of higher education to Indonesia's development needs.

This educational effect on the students is reinforced by the impact KKN has on faculty members who, participating as trainers, supervisors and evaluators of students, are taken out of their lecture rooms and confronted with the realities of Indonesia's basic development problems. It is felt that the experience gained through the KKN will play a continuing role in changing curricula to make them more relevant to the needs and conditions of Indonesian society.

2. Summary: Responses to Participation Needs of Out-of-School Youth

1. In some of the projects reviewed, participation was viewed as both a means and an end. As a means, it offers youth greater control over their lives and an improvement in their living condition. As an end, it provides the psychic satisfaction of having a share in the control of one's environment and the structure of power.

2. In other projects, a substantial gap exists between the rhetoric of participation and actual practice. Much effort has been expended to explore ways to bridge this gap to facilitate the participation of youth in program decision making, implementation, benefits and evaluation.

3. It was noted that the concept of participation in out-of-school youth programs has often not taken into consideration the local or national meaning of participation and the traditional structures which facilitate participation. Because of the sometimes alien nature of the concept of participation, youth have often times been much less interested in participation than in its benefits and their use.

4. While youth camps and voluntary service programs were once popular schemes for increasing youth participation, many have been forced, of necessity, to modify their initial focus to reflect the expressed needs of their youth clientele instead of the government sponsors.

E. GENERAL OBSERVATIONS FROM THE PROJECT REVIEW

The foregoing review of the needs of out-of-school youth and

the programmatic responses to those needs yields both general and specific observations. The specific findings emerging from the review have related to employment, access to training and education, and participation needs. These address both program content and process and have been included as summary statements at the end of each of the respective sections of Part III of the study.

The general observations, which are presented below, have been considered in the suggestions for areas of priority concern in Section IV of the study. These observations are felt to be generally applicable to programs for out-of-school youth and are neither clientele-bound nor skill-specific.

1. A major concern is that there is very little, if any, evidence in the literature reviewed of third world youth having been given the opportunity to speak out and express their needs on employment, equal access to education and training or on participation. To expect such statements may be termed as politically naive by some. But, it would seem an important first step in designing programs for out-of-school youth to involve them, along with their parents and elders, in the definition of the needs they have and the problems they face.

2. The greatest use possible should be made of existing resources, both physical and human, in mounting new programs for out-of-school youth rather than expending large capital outlays, particularly on new facilities. Such an approach would have long term implications for continuation of projects at the point when external assistance ends.

3. Utilization of existing resources would include not only physical resources such as community centers, vocational training centers and workshops but also indigenous training institutions and traditions within the community. Recent studies by King (1976), Nihan and Jourdain (1978), Nihan, Carron and Sidibé (1979) and McLaughlin (1979) have shown that large amounts of skills training for the modern and traditional sectors are carried out through learning in indigenous training situations in the informal sector.

4. Another general concern is that programs for out-of-school

youth be participatory, but in the nature of the community in which they are being developed and not necessarily in the context of those from outside the community who are developing the program. Therefore, it would appear important to identify patterns of adult-youth and youth-adult interactions, particularly in the context of situations where skill learning transpires.

5. Greater community and youth participation in program planning and implementation implies decentralization and sharing of decision making among a number of parties. Such extended participation and the utilization of local human and material resources can offer communities, youth, and their elders greater ownership of programs, thus possibly enhancing motivation.

6. There is also a concern that programs designed for out-of-school youth make a contribution to the establishment of a status for youth as a group. Where possible, this might be accomplished by greater youth participation in decision making, not only at the planning and implementation levels, but also in the initial decisions to undertake a program.

7. Programs for out-of-school youth should attempt to bridge the gap between need- and want-oriented approaches to youth involvement. Practical programs which would contribute to individual development and the change of perceptions and attitudes are important. It would seem important that youth develop an image of reality based on an insight into needs rather than unlimited wants.

8. At the same time, programs should foster self reliance, and promote self help with a spirit of cooperativeness,

9. An additional concern centers on the apparent lack of attention to studies of the absorption capacity of the employment market prior to the planning of programs involving skills training for youth.

10. Connected with this is the general area of needs assessment and the often foregone opportunities for communities, and in this case specific members of a community, to enter into an active "needs negotiation" with local, regional or national authorities regarding intended programs. This concern, as in the case of several of the above, is seen as being directly related to the motivation of youth to participate actively in out-of-school youth programs.

11. Programs for out-of-school youth, will, of necessity, have to deal with both the positive and negative residual effects of the formal school system on youth. Success, it

> would seem, will depend in part upon how well the unrealized aspirations of youth, their alienation and their educational deficiencies are channeled into relevant educational and training offerings.

To conclude this section of the study, it seems appropriate to speak to the use of nonformal education as a means of delivering programs to out-of-school youth. The review of projects would seem to confirm previously suggested strategies advocating nonformal education training as a means of reaching out-of-school youth. Such training allows for flexibility in that it can adapt to local needs and changing conditions, as noted in the FJA program in Upper Volta. Nonformal education also appears to have the freedom to adapt to the schedules of trainees. Local ownership of programs and activities is encouraged by nonformal education programs through the use of local talent (farmers, youth, craftspeople and shopkeepers) in educational activities. There is also a growing recognition or legitimization of nonformal education as a viable and "respectable" alternative in offering training to out-of-school youth.

PART III

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PART IV

AREAS OF CONCERN FOR PRIORITY CONSIDERATION

In the section which follows, the discussion turns to areas of concern for priority treatment by USAID/DS/ED in its "NFE and Out-of-School Youth Project" (931-1241). The areas discussed treat both clientele and specific skills development for out-of-school youth programs. In each instance, the recommendations which are made stem from the earlier discussions on needs of out-of-school youth and programmatic responses to those needs.

In the first section below, programmatic provisions for rural youth are discussed. Responding to the needs of the majority of the world's youth population living in rural areas would seem to be an area of priority concern for future planning. The recommendations listed in the section are a response to the out-of-school youth literature and relate to a specific group of youth who are consistently left out of most education and training opportunities.

The second section looks at a subgroup within the general out-of-school youth population, female school leavers. This group represents a population that has also been left out of training and education activities and deserves attention and priority attention. Suggestions are offered for both program content for female school leavers as well as a process which might be most responsive to their needs.

In the third section, entrepreneurial and managerial skills training programs for youth are discussed as an area of priority

consideration. In the review of projects a recurring concern was expressed that the provision of vocational skills to young people was not necessarily enough to prepare them for the world of work. Thus, the suggestion is put forth that entrepreneurial and managerial skills training might be integrated into employment related training and education.

The decisions to choose the clientele and specific skills training mentioned in the paragraphs above have been guided by a number of questions. What is the long term value of the areas suggested for consideration? Are such suggestions aimed at easily observable priority needs? How could such projects capitalize on already existing efforts to provide educational and training opportunities to out-of-school youth? Would such programs/projects have wider application and possible "spin off" or multiplier effects? To what extent are the necessary support systems in place? What can be learned from past experiences in the conduct of similar projects? And, do the future benefits of such projects outweigh the initial costs as well as the maintenance costs involved?

In concluding, this section of the study stresses the need for greater participation by out-of-school youth in the decisions to undertake programs, the identification of needs and prioritization of those needs, program planning and implementation and in evaluative decisions to continue or modify existing programs. How this crucial element of participation is translated into action is a major concern for many, especially the youth involved.

A. RURAL OUT-OF-SCHOOL YOUTH

The majority of the world's population live in rural areas. And, as the programs reviewed indicate, it is in rural areas that the disparities in education training and employment opportunities are the most noticeable. Although urban areas are not without their share of problems, it is felt that priority consideration should be given to rural out-of-school youth as they constitute the group consistently short changed. Drop out rates and non-attendance rates for formal schools are the highest in rural areas. Training facilities are either poor or nonexistant. Subsistence farming is the norm and few attempts have been made to prepare youth with income generating skills to help support themselves and their families.

In light of the foregoing, the following considerations relating to male and female out-of-school youth in rural areas are offered:

1. Programs for out-of-school youth in rural areas will need to overcome existing unfavorable attitudes toward living and working in the rural areas. As many youth do not see life in rural areas as a viable option for either work or education, programs will need to address this issue. And, this problem of attitudes toward rural life is intimately tied to migration to urban areas. Past programs suggest a greater role for vocational guidance and the use of the media. Both have been successfully employed for building such positive attitude formation and consciousness raising, and could be used for future planning.

2. A consideration for training programs in the rural areas might consider agricultural skills for youth but in addition, seriously consider the area of non-farm employment opportunities as viable training options for out-of-school youth. As a high percentage of the available work in the rural areas exists in the area of nonfarm employment, that area merits special consideration. Past programming indicates that along with the recognition and implementation of the nonfarm training, there need to be provisions ensuring that males and fe-

males have equal access to such training.

3. As shown in the previous discussion, second chance schemes for rural school leavers have a role to play in helping former students raise their educational level and at the same time, contribute to their employment status. If school leavers are given a chance to meet their needs through "certification," more opportunities might well open up for them.

4. Additional motivational programs might be implemented to allow students to make a decision to stay in the rural areas. Many planners concur that to make such a decision economically viable, youth will need access to land and credit as well as managerial skills to make the best use of the skills they have learned through informal, nonformal and formal methods.

5. Several questions can be raised as a result of examining past literacy programs for youth. Do rural youth need literacy and, if they do, what would be the most functional approach to learn the skill? Are literacy programs for rural areas planned to meet the particular needs of the youth in those areas? What can be learned from past programming?

6. Programmatic responses to needs might be more successful when part of an integrated approach to community and rural development. As was shown in various extension training programs, interagency cooperation and use of already scarce resources in rural areas were crucial to planning and implementation. The needs of youth must be seen as a complex series of needs and wants and problems which will probably not be met through one program with a specialized focus.

7. The participation of youth in the identification of the needs of their own group has been a recurring theme in this study. However, in the rural areas where family and community ties are often strong, it is important to involve adults and parents in decisions about programs for rural youth. They too, must be given information. Forums for discussing their expectations for their children and their perceptions of the world in which they live will be important. Continuous communication is necessary between youth and the leaders of the villages.

8. As was shown earlier, many of the needs of young people relate to peer group and socialization and positive interaction with each other. And, one of the discouraging reactions to living in the rural areas for many young people has to do with lack of recreation and leisure activities. Programs for out-of-school might address these needs through

integration of such activities within the general concept of training.

9. Using rural out-of-school youth as a resource instead of regarding them as a problem is especially important when selecting extension agents for the rural areas. Young people can and should be employed to work in areas of health, sanitation, community development, literacy, and nonformal education programs. Peer teaching and support are thought to be a part of that training and job implementation. For youth to receive the status and recognition which they request and deserve they must be put in positions where they have chances to make decisions and take leadership roles in their rural communities.

Considerations for programming for rural out-of-school youth must have as their central focus a balance between the needs, resources and constraints of youth, their environment and the society in general. The fostering of this balance depends on decisions which relate to the previous recommendations as well as to the particular context within which the individual young person and youth as a group are placed.

B. FEMALE SCHOOL LEAVERS

As was pointed out in earlier discussions, female school leavers as a group represent a target group for priority consideration. For both historical and cultural reasons, they have consistently not benefitted from education and training opportunities as well as having been discriminated against in employment activities. Many young girls with limited schooling face a life of family and household responsibilities. They will need programs which are responsive to a set of traditional needs, on the one hand, and to a set of very different needs related to a changing society, on the other hand. Special considerations for this group of out-of-school youth follows:

1. It is important that programs for young female school leavers should not detract from or increase their present home or family responsibilities, whether it be in a rural or urban setting. In addition, training programs might provide services that will compliment their other work and make their daily tasks easier: child-care facilities; flexible scheduling; activities within the home; and live-in training where families are included in the boarding facilities.

2. To meet both traditional needs and present needs, traditional literacy programs and family life education programs have been most successful when income-generating skills are included as part of the programming. Training in crafts production is important in such programs but not to the exclusion of other areas of income generation. This is especially true in rural areas where a number of agricultural and nonfarm activities could be considered.

3. Significant thought and planning must be focused on the needs of rural female school leavers as defined by the young women themselves and not by men or women external to the particular situation. All too often, programs lack the necessary reality base of specific work and home environments. The needs of female school leavers must also be considered within a broader context which takes into account the young woman's relationship with other females, with males, with their families and community and the nation.

4. Many past programs have provided structures to facilitate the sharing of skills between women in a given area or across areas. Through sharing skills acquired through traditional methods, nonformal education training, and formal schooling, women can form networks among themselves as well as enhance their own self-esteem and self-confidence in the eyes of other women and in the eyes of the community in general. Interest or cultural groups might provide the opportunity for appropriate skill transfer within traditional groupings in the community at little or no cost.

5. Consideration can be shown to insure that female school leavers be given opportunities to be exposed to and to train in areas other than those traditionally regarded as "women only skills." If the cultural and social climate of the area permits women to gain access to nontraditional employment opportunities or skill training, then there is a role for support services to help young women adjust to these new roles and gain the acceptance of their male counterparts. This could take the form of vocational guidance components in the program or forums for discussions outside the training atmosphere.

6. Young females have been used successfully as extension agents and paraprofessionals in the areas of health, agriculture, community development, and literacy and nonformal education. Programs directed to these new job roles can train females to accept these responsibilities and assist them to use their authority to make decisions that will affect them and their clients.

7. It is ncecessary to recognize the traditional/informal skill training which occurs in both urban and rural areas. In addition, methods can be found to encourage young girls to make use of these skills in their individual settings. Entrepreneurial and managerial skill training could be made accessible to them as an extension of other types of skill acquisition. Support mechanisms will be a necessary part of the managerial component so as to provide encouragement, credit, and recognition for the young women entering a familiar or "foreign" occupational environment.

Above all, programming decisions for young female school leavers must reflect consideration of the socio-cultural setting to ascertain whether "women only" programs are appropriate for a particular community or whether these programs could be integrated into already existing "male only" programs. If training activities do occur in separate programs or in combined programs, the concept of "women-centered training" is of primary importance.

C. ENTREPRENEURIAL AND MANAGERIAL SKILLS TRAINING FOR YOUTH IN RURAL AREAS

Program planners and project staff have come to realize that entrepreneurial and managerial skills training are important components to vocational skills development programs. Skill training in these areas was often conspicuously absent in many earlier training programs. Time and experience in the conduct of programs geared to self-employment have shown that skills training alone is not sufficient for entering into self-employment.

Management training for rural youth engaged in small enterprises is seen as providing a number of benefits to rural areas. Programs with entrepreneurial and managerial skills components have enhanced the employment capabilities of youth, fostered socio-economic growth through the diversification of the rural economy, allowed for more equitable distribution of wealth, contributed to a decrease in rural-urban migration and encouraged local youth to take a more active part in both the social and economic life of the community.

Here, the concern is that entrepreneurial activity and managerial training be thought of in terms of including local youth who can become self-employed through starting their own shops, enter into trade, or provide repair services or production services. Youth would be seen as initiating a profession that is already in practice within a village or small town or one for which there is a demonstrated need and one which is economically viable. Youth in such programs would be seen as investing a portion of their own funds in the entrepreneurial activity. And, perhaps most importantly, youth would become involved in the nuts and bolts of the entrepreneurial decision: information gathering for decision making and risk taking. Projects underway, particularly those in India, demonstrate that such programs are possible, and that entrepreneurial and managerial skills can be successfully inculcated in youth entering into business.

Programs for entrepreneurial and managerial skills training would, of necessity, need to be based on the two basic problems facing small businesses and individual entrepreneurs: financial handicaps, whether at the inception of the undertaking/activity or in its

operation or period of expansion, and lack of relevant information.

Programs appear to be most successful when they are based on the concept of entrepreneurship which is appropriate for a given society. There are a variety of conceptual understandings of what an entrepreneur is. Some say entrepreneurs are born and cannot be made, but the efforts of several programs would tend to discount this notion in favor of the concept of entrepreneur built around man and life experiences.

Studies of small businesses have shown that there is relatively little in the way of specialization in management and that the businesses often depend on close personal contacts for their existence. In addition, many small businesses encounter handicaps in obtaining credits and the necessary capital. And, small businesses are basically of the family nature. These characteristics of small enterprises would need be taken into consideration in the development of programs for training entrepreneurs.

Program experiences have also shown that successful management skills training and entrepreneurial activities depend upon the existence of a well developed infrastructure offering a variety of services. The provision of consulting services to young entrepreneurs, financial services to assist them in setting up businesses, co-operative societies which allow for securing/accessing raw materials and facilitating marketing of finished products, and the existence of government policies which encourage the continued development of small scale businesses are all seen as important.

Entrepreneurial training need not be long in nature, thus

allowing youth relatively quick access to opportunities to move into active practice of their skills. Past program experiences suggest that the transition from training into actual entrepreneurship take the form of active, intense involvement in principles of marketing and management. This could be facilitated through participation in a detailed market survey and project report prepared by each trainee. In the market survey, which trainees are to undertake by themselves, attention is restricted to a few villages and is aimed at finding out the size of the potential demand for the services or product which the trainee intends to market. From such an activity, it should become clear if there is sufficient demand for the proposed business.

After completing the market survey and the making of a decision as to what service is going to be marketed, the trainee could then begin the formulation of a project proposal in which the skills to be marketed are outlined. Such an activity, could be considered as a "certificate" which is taken to mean that the youth has understood the basic skills of becoming an entrepreneur. With the project proposal formulated, the youth then estimates the amount of investment needed, and the profits to be expected from the investment. The inputs needed are enumerated--space, equipment, working capital, raw materials--and the expected output in terms of sales of finished products, employment generated and surpluses made.

Such a process would require that the aspiring entrepreneur put his/her intentions into writing, an action with multiple functions. By doing so, the basic entrepreneurial decisions are thought through in detail prior to the decision to act. The document itself could

serve as the point of negotiations for 'seed' loans or actual bank loans to finance the entrepreneurial activity. And, the document serves a possible evaluative function for both the young entrepreneur and those with whom he or she has been working.

In summary, entrepreneurial and management skills training programs imply:

--that programs are based on the concept of entrepreneurship which is prevalent within a given culture;

--that self-employment plays a significant role in rural areas and in decreasing the rate of rural-urban migration, especially among youth;

--the need for close cooperation between the private and public sectors with the public sector providing training, financial assistance and post-enterprise support and the private sector involved in the promotion and development of self-employment and entrepreneurship as a part of its "social responsibility," particularly in the form of "seed loans" or soft loans to participants in such training;

--that detailed studies be conducted within specific cultural and socio-economic settings on the characteristics of small businesses and why those businesses either succeed or fail; and

--the creation of the appropriate infrastructure which might include: agro-service centers; consulting services; co-operative credit societies; marketing societies; and financial assistance.

The work of several organizations in this field have been mentioned in an earlier section of this paper. One organization in particular has issued creative training guidelines and suggestions. These have been included in abstracted form in Appendix III. Also included in that section is a modified proposal for a recently funded project in Kenya, the Equator Community Development Project, which will, at the time of implementation, provide managerial and entre-

preneurial skills training for rural youth.

D. IN CONCLUSION

In the foregoing, recommendations have been made for both specific clientele and skills areas for priority consideration and further research on the part of USAID. Each of these suggestions has been made with an underlying concern in mind: that all programs give full consideration to the need for more active participation of out-of-school youth in the offerings being made.

By placing a greater emphasis on participation in community projects and problem solving by youth, program planners and assistance organizations can contribute to the active involvement of youth in development. Past "participatory" projects have fallen far short of putting the rhetoric of participation into practice. The participation of youth has been largely token, and has resulted in many instances in greater alienation and feelings of manipulation on the part of youth.

The participation of youth in program planning and implementation is viewed as being crucial in four areas. In each, participation is seen as both a means and an end. As a means, it can offer out-of-school youth greater control over their lives and improvement in their general living conditions. As an end, participation provides the psychic satisfaction of having a share in the control of one's environment and the structure of power. And, as will be noted in the following paragraphs, the concept of participation entails much more than political participation. It includes, for example, the right of

youth to address themselves to governmental structures which are responsive and to form themselves into groups in order to pursue common interests.

The first area of necessary youth participation is in decision making. Here, participation is possible in three kinds of decisions: initial decisions about needs, priorities and goals, that is, the decisions to begin a project or program. Additional participation in decision making centers around on-going decisions to continue projects and programs and in operational decisions about leadership and control of particular aspects of the project.

A second area in which youth participation has particular value is in implementation of program activities: resource contributions both as workers and through contributions in kind, administration as employees of a project and members of project related committees, and enrollment in programs and demonstrated willingness to respond positively to the program offerings.

Participation in the benefits of a program--material and social as well as the personal consequences of involvement in the program--is a third area of participation open to out-of-school youth.

And fourth, the participation of out-of-school youth in the evaluation of program activities also provides an important avenue for involvement. Participation in project centered evaluation, both formative and summative; political activities such as voting; and public opinion efforts related to the continuation or modification of a particular project are all evaluation functions to which youth might contribute.

Above all, the active involvement of youth in the areas noted above is seen as contributing to the development of positive attitudes on the part of out-of-school youth, attitudes which are central to the success of programs being designed to meet the varied needs of such a population. There seems to be a quiet concern, somewhere near the heart of the process of involving out-of-school youth in development, that there must be room for the provision for the choices of those affected. How this crucial element is translated into action is a major concern to many, especially to those youth being affected by the program to be inacted.

APPENDIX I

ILLITERACY RATES

15-19 Age Group-Selected Countries

APPENDIX I

ESTIMATES AND PERCENTAGE OF ILLITERACY FOR 15-19 AGE GROUP 1970-2000. SELECTED COUNTRIES BY SEX. (in thousands)

Country	1970	1985	2000
Uganda	567.2 (56.1%)	477.1 (30.7%)	554.1 (21.3%)
M	177.3 (35%)	156.4 (19.9%)	190.4 (14.6%)
F	390.0 (78%)	320.7 (41.8%)	363.7 (28.0%)
Kenya	573.8 (49%)	15.0 (.8%)	16.7 (.5%)
M	151.9 (25.7%)	4.8 (.5%)	8.4 (.5%)
F	421.9 (72.9%)	10.3 (1.1%)	8.4 (.5%)
Tanzania	615.6 (44.6%)	311.4 (14.7%)	211.8 (5.8%)
M	210.3 (30.6%)	100.6 (9.5%)	49.3 (2.7%)
F	405.4 (58.6%)	210.9 (19.8%)	162.6 (8.9%)
India	26443.8 (49.8%)	33390.0 (40.9%)	41905.6 (37%)
M	10210.6 (37.4%)	15211.7 (35.8%)	20133.6 (34.3%)
F	16233.2 (63%)	18178.2 (46.5%)	21772.0 (39.8%)
Bangladesh	4064.5 (58%)	3295.9 (30.9%)	3347.6 (20.4%)
M	1206.4 (33.5%)	494.7 (9.0%)	338.2 (4.0%)
F	2854.1 (84%)	2801.2 (54.1%)	3009.4 (37.8%)
Pakistan	3997.9 (61.1%)	4296.5 (41.8%)	3776.5 (22.2%)
M	1185.4 (35.0%)	935.6 (17.8%)	983.0 (11.2%)
F	2812.6 (89.1%)	3360.6 (67.6%)	2793.5 (34%)
Bolivia	146.9 (28.8%)	76.3 (10.6%)	41.6 (3.8%)
M	52.5 (20.3%)	30.2 (8.3%)	17.5 (3.2%)
F	94.5 (37.6%)	46.1 (13.0%)	24.0 (4.5%)
Peru	195.5 (14.1%)	18.7 (.8%)	16.0 (.5%)
M	55.9 (8.0%)	5.6 (.5%)	8.1 (.5%)
F	139.6 (20.4%)	13.1 (1.2%)	7.9 (.5%)
Equador	78.0 (12.6%)	49.1 (4.5%)	23.8 (1.5%)
M	35.1 (11.2%)	24.7 (4.5%)	13.7 (1.7%)
F	42.9 (14.0%)	24.4 (4.6%)	10.1 (1.3%)
Guatemala	261.0 (47.2%)	198.5 (23.0%)	134.9 (10.4%)
M	111.6 (39.8%)	90.5 (20.6%)	60.7 (9.2%)
F	149.4 (54.9%)	108.0 (25.4%)	74.2 (11.6%)
Honduras	61.3 (23.8%)	47.7 (10.5%)	33.5 (4.6%)
M	29.5 (22.9%)	23.7 (10.5%)	17.2 (4.7%)
F	31.8 (24.7%)	23.9 (10.6%)	16.3 (4.5%)

Country	1970	1985	2000
El Salvador	88.1 (24.5%)	103.0 (16.9%)	98.9 (10.5%)
M	41.9 (23%)	49.9 (16.3%)	48.0 (10.1%)
F	46.2 (26%)	53.1 (16.7%)	50.8 (10.9%)
Jamaica	23.7 (14.2%)	4.0 (1.4%)	1.4 (.5%)
M	11.2 (13.8%)	2.3 (1.5%)	.8 (.5%)
F	12.6 (14.6%)	1.7 (1.2%)	.7 (.5%)
Guyana	1.0 (1.3%)	N/A	N/A
M	.5 (1.2%)		
F	.5 (1.3%)		
Mali	436.5 (84.5%)	524.0 (71.5%)	699.2 (59.6%)
M	194.1 (74.6%)	214.4 (58.1%)	247.8 (42.4%)
F	242.4 (94.5%)	309.6 (85.1%)	451.4 (76.7%)
Niger	383.0 (91.5%)	492.1 (78.8%)	651.1 (63.4%)
M	178.7 (86.0%)	210.0 (67.7%)	250.9 (49.0%)
F	204.3 (96.9%)	282.2 (89.8%)	400.2 (77.6%)
Upper Volta	481.1 (88.1%)	636.6 (81.6%)	835.8 (72.1%)
M	225.5 (81.1%)	285.2 (73.1%)	369.1 (63.9%)
F	255.7 (95.4%)	351.2 (90.2%)	466.8 (80.2%)
Lesotho	25.7 (25.3%)	6.9 (5.3%)	1.2 (.6%)
M	20.0 (39.7%)	6.5 (10.0%)	.6 (.6%)
F	5.7 (11.1%)	.4 (.6%)	.5 (.5%)
Botswana	46.6 (76.1%)	5.4 (5.8%)	.8 (.5%)
M	20.1 (74.1%)	3.7 (8.1%)	.4 (.5%)
F	26.5 (77.6%)	1.7 (3.6%)	.4 (.5%)
Swaziland	13.7 (32.4%)	3.5 (5.6%)	.6 (.6%)
M	7.4 (35.1%)	2.0 (6.3%)	.3 (.6%)
F	6.3 (29.7%)	1.6 (4.9%)	.3 (.6%)

Source: Unesco, Estimates and Projections of Illiteracy, 1978, pp. 26-82.

APPENDIX II

PROJECT REVIEW: NARRATIVE

Ruralization and Vocationalization of the Curriculum

One ten year experience in ruralizing the curricula in Upper Volta, that of the Centres d'Education Rurales, was successful in setting up some 330 rural education centers which attempted to decrease the number of years of schooling for rural youths and at the same time make significant curricular and structural modifications in the educational system. At the end of the ten year period, an evaluation showed that the CER's had not appreciably increased rural enrollments and that many parents only tolerated the existence of the centers, if not ignored them completely.

Some of the difficulties of the CER's lay in the fact that they were perceived as a less desirable system of education in comparison with the offerings of the "regular" school system. The CER's reduced the age of rural school leaving, thus pushing the 15-16 year old school leaver out into a rural society where the age of the majority was much higher. Because of this, many CER graduates were not likely to settle in rural areas and bring about the modernization which their education was hoped to effect. The CER's were later reorganized to include post-secondary cooperative concepts similar to those of the chantier écoles organized in Senegal in the mid to late 1960's. These groupements post scolaires (GPS) grouped CER graduates into small co-operative units which were assisted financially (through agricultural credit) and employment creation plus efforts leading to primary school certification. The GPS's were seen then as the bridge between adolescence and adulthood. They were also seen as a mechanism for breaking down the isolation of the

CER from organized farm life and created productive units in which continuous learning was managed by members of the group with the assistance of animateurs intinerants. (itinerant facilitators)

As can be seen from the above example, what began as an effort to ruralize the curriculum to make it more relevant to the needs of rural youths, was, in effect, taken out of the context of the formal system so that its initial objective could be achieved. By putting the rural learning experience into the context of an effort larger than that of the formal system, rural youth were able to enter into productive agricultural employment. The example of the CER's serves to highlight a point which Blaug (1972) makes in that those seeking quick and easy answers to the employment problem by attempting curriculum reforms within the formal system are in for a task that is both difficult and often without immediate, short term results.

A program such as the CER experience contrasts interestingly with the concept behind the Basic Secondary Schools in the Countryside in Cuba (Escuelas en el campo) which were begun in 1966 as an experiment to lessen the disparity between the towns and the countryside and between schooling and the realities of life. Students, most of whom are from urban areas, live at the schools in rural areas where they are required to spend three hours each day working on the school's farm. In addition to being an important part of the training process, the practical work activities of the schools relate to Cuba's agricultural production plans for coffee, fruits and vegetables. This practice of combining academic training with production has since expanded to include the country's entire educational system.

Alternative schools for primary school leavers are also under development in the Solomon Islands where some 90% of the population is rural. These two year training programs involve radical curriculum development integrated into four areas: agriculture (35% of student time); handicrafts instruction (both traditional and modern); home crafts (which includes health and consumer education); and development studies (economics, current affairs and civics).

The program has come under some criticism as being too radical as it eliminates the possibility of youth transferring back into the academic secondary schools.

Similar programs are also being developed in the nearby Gilbert Islands where large percentages of the population are also rural.

Panama's Centros de Educación Basica General (formerly known as Las Escuelas de Producción) are establishments with joint educational and production functions. The first rests on a curriculum which is adapted to local economic, social, ethnic and cultural needs and conditions with the production element as the interest area of center of focus.

Teachers, with the help of local development, agriculture and health agents, develop programs of study and work which both respond to felt needs and develop new attitudes and behavior patterns. Communities use the schools as general education centers for adults and out-of-school youth.

The Centros are seen as providing answers to the problems of population dispersion and low rural productivity. They have become relocation centers and the locus of activity for children and youth from sparsely populated areas. Through their production activities,

previously fallow land is being put to use and new agricultural products are being made available. The Centros are seen as having five major influences on the communities in which they are located and which they serve: community organization in that the schools prompt the communities to establish local structures which are gradually linked with national structures, thus allowing for the creation of national/local interfaces on terms acceptable to the community; community participation in that the community participates in the shaping of the educational offering; demonstration effect on the community in that the school, by confronting discovery with doubt, combining theory and knowledge with attitudes, gradually helps to establish a conscious pattern of change in the community; community training in that the productive activities of the Centros serve to introduce new agricultural techniques, new practices in animal husbandry, the use of new construction materials, improved water supply, etc.; and cultural development in the community in that the growing awareness of their potential as members of a local, national and world community is important to rural dwellers.

In a review of education and employment in Latin America, Schiefelbeim (1976) notes that the past decade saw a rapid increase in vocational and technical education in Latin America in spite of research which had indicated the fallacy of such investment. He also notes that several countries in the region have followed the comprehensive school schemes endorsed by the World Bank. These schools provide several work oriented tracks but do not differentiate in the degree which is obtained at the end of secondary school.

On- and Off-the-Job Training for Industry, Farm and Nonfarm Activities

Pre-vocational training programs in urban areas can be illustrated by the example of The Boulak Project, Egypt. A series of ad hoc vocational training offerings for schooled and nonschooled youth led to the establishment of the Boulak Project. The project, which grew out of concerns for rapid urbanization in the area, was developed after a detailed survey of needs of the immediate community. A unique feature of the project was the incorporation of the vocational offerings into a more comprehensive program of activities which included training for community leaders, child welfare workers, women leaders and voluntary literacy.

Carpentry, motor mechanics, metal working and light electrical work were offered to a youth population which included 10 to 16 year-olds not currently in school. Two shifts of twenty youths each were initially accommodated in the project's workshops. Priority was given to those youth who were completely unemployed. Training, which was from 9 to 12 months long, included a three month orientation period of three months which was followed by a six to nine month period of specialization in one skill.

Another example of programs for urban out-of-school youth in which training is linked to labor force skill creation is that of the Urban Labor Training Project in El Salvador. Programs in the skill training area can be divided into two major groups on the basis of the organizations offering the training: Firm-sponsored training, whether carried on within or outside private firms and programs of a larger scale carried out by either the Ministry of Education, public sector

institutions or private training institutions.

The Urban Labor Training Project is a Ministry of Education program under current funding from USAID. It offers vocational training programs in secondary schools in the afternoons and evenings to youth from both rural and urban areas. Course offerings are determined on the basis of market analysis and vary according to the locale of the training location. Information for the analysis is supplied by Education and Trade Councils established as a part of the ongoing program. Attendance during 1977 was noted as being around 2,500 young adults and youths.

Vocational training programs can, and often do, take the form of pre-apprenticeship type programs. One interesting example is that of Pre-Apprenticeship (Pre-Vocational) Training Centers, Tunisia.

The Tunisian Pre-Vocational Training Centers were established to assist primary school leavers in the development of skills and attitudes necessary for securing productive employment and/or additional vocational training. In carrying out their programs, the Centers have stressed the development of more general rather than specific vocational skills. The reasons for this are founded in the belief that once learners have developed the necessary confidence in their own ability to perform general tasks and have developed attitudes consistent with modernization efforts, they will be better able to learn more specific skills required for certain trades.

The eleven month training period consists of a preliminary series of basic skill learning exercises such as measuring, sawing, and tool care. At the same time, trainees study languages, math, civic education

and physical education. Later, the general skills are applied in courses on various trades. An apprenticeship follows the eleven month training period, or trainees can secure places in formal vocational training programs. The Centers are not co-educational, and a number of centers exist for the training of girls in job-oriented instruction in handicrafts with additional courses in home economics, languages and civic education. The Centers have a good record for placement, particularly in urban areas.

An additional feature of urban vocational training programs is that they often are part of a larger series of programs, often referred to as "ladder" programs. Much of the work in the development of ladder type programs in which an individual can progress through one training offering and then move on to additional training opportunities was pioneered by MOBRAL, the Brazilian Literacy Movement.

Due to the extent of its current operation, MOBRAL has been able to extend its ladder vocational training programs into rural areas. Such a movement has, as one would expect, increased the need for closer coordination of efforts.

A smaller example of another ladder program is that operated by the Liberian Opportunities Industrialization Center. The programs offered by the Center to out-of-school youth include programs for both the unemployed and the underemployed who can meet the literacy requirements. The Center offers a series of ladder programs where talented youth can enter into one program, such as the youth on-the-job training program, which is wide open to participation to any one who is willing to work and learn, and then can move on up into the LOIC's one year program. The

one year program is divided between nine months in a residential situation with both pre-vocational and vocational training followed by on-th-job training.

The youth on-the-job training program is designed to develop job entry level skills, pre-job orientation and practical on-the-job training which improves employability. Semi-skilled trainees serve as assistants to the skilled, thus developing a sense of dignity for manual work and labor as a positive attitude toward a legitimate and rewarding way to earn a living.

As noted in the Liberian example above, the ladder series type of training often entails the need for greater command of the written language, hence perhaps one of the limiting factors in applying this concept to project among youth with limited or no literacy skills.

The project under discussion in the example which follows, the Senegalese Integrated Youth Devlopment Project in Dakar, offers an illustration of more recent trends in planning vocational education. In this instance, the training allows for alternate periods of training in organized course settings and periods of work within industry.

The project is a YMCA/ORT/USAID sponsored integrated system of vocational training services for unemployed school leavers. The project is designed to enable out-of-school youth to obtain marketable skills and offers youth assistance with job placement and vocational counseling. To date, the project has concentrated on the area of skill training in textiles production. Future activities will include training in construction, electricity, general mechanics and additional textile related skills.

In Senegal, roughly 5,000 students abandon secondary studies each school year. There are about 45,000 such school leavers now who are unemployed. Some 70% of them live in rural areas, with the bulk of the remaining 30% resident in Dakar. Unemployed educated youth are in direct competition with their illiterate counterparts for occasional common labor jobs which offer little in the way of advancement and security. Such conditions hamper out-of-school youth in their ability to capitalize upon literacy skills and on their potential to contribute to society.

Studies undertaken by YMCA/ORT show that existing vocational training facilities in Dakar can only accommodate 22% of those youth in the school leaver category. The researchers also found that there were no programs which offered any type of placement or follow-up services to trainees.

The program in operation under ORT/YMCA sponsorship includes an 18 month cycle in which each participant, all of whom have a minimum of six years of schooling, is exposed to a broad curriculum in four general areas, with a gradual movement into an area of specialization. In the second cycle, which is composed of a nine month training period, time is spent alternating between industry and the classroom. This "sandwich approach" allows for classes to be divided into two sections, one with an apprenticeship assignment and the other group in classes. In this way, permanent facilities of the center are always in use. Some of the participants in apprenticeships were given small salaries by the industry for which they worked, thus increasing their motivation for participation in the program.

Many benefits are seen as arising from the program. Long term benefits include the increased wages to be earned by participants, estimated by some to be double their pre-entry earning possibilities. The program is also seen as contributing to a decrease in delinquency, a more secure financial situation for youth and their families and the creation of a greater sense of social responsibility.

The Mobile Trades Training Schools in Thailand were begun to develop young artisans for rural towns. In a 1971 survey reported by Ahmed and Coombs in Education for Rural Development (1975, p. 627) 60% of the participants were girls learning skills which, though useful in the home, could be applied in gainful employment. The MTTS provides this skill training and improved opportunities for out-of-school youth to meet the demands for semi-skilled and skilled workers foreseen in the national development plan. The program is designed for clientele with minimum levels of schooling. Most of the trainees fall into the 17 to 24 age group and have approximately four years of schooling.

The courses are nonagricultural in nature and are designed to alleviate unemployment: dressmaking, auto mechanics, tailoring, radio repair, electrical wiring and installation, cosmetics and hairdressing, food preparation, typing, welding, etc. They are organized in daily shifts of 3 hours with one shift at night which would lend access to women with home and family responsibilities.

The schools are mobile in that they operate in a particular town for 1-3 years and then equipment and staff are moved to a new location. Two distinguishing features of the project are the absence of expenditures for permanent buildings and its ability to move once the need for training

has been satisfied. The benefits generaled by the program are seen as leading to individual development and contribute to rural employment promotion and economic welfare.

The Fishery Training Center in Singapore began its project for secondary school leavers and local fishermen in an effort to improve the fishing industry of Singapore through the training of qualified personnel to operate modern fishing vessels and exploit the off-shore waters, thus increasing the fish production of the country.

The trainees are taught basic navigation, marine engineering, net making and seamanship during their one year residential course. After the first six months, the trainees are grouped as either deck or engine trainees where they are taught the relevant deck or engine subjects more intensively. Practical training is provided in two workshops and two training vessels. On board the vessels the trainees receive an additional four months training from skilled navigators and skilled engineers. In its early days, the project was supported by UNDP. After the termination of that funding, the government of Singapore continued the project.

Vocational Skills Training for Rural Areas

In an earlier section of this study, the development of the Centres d'Education Rurales in Upper Volta were discussed at length. The first project reviewed in this section devoted to skills training in rural areas for out-of-school youth, treats a successor program of the CER's, the Formation des Juenes Agriculteurs (FJA).

In 1974, the Government of Upper Volta decided to establish a

"complete educational system," which would combine mass education with the restoration of African dignity and personality, merge learning with production and gear education to community development.

At that time, only 12% of school age children were in primary school and there were some 9,000 aspirants for the 1,500 secondary places. Educated unemployment was running high with little hopes of the growing modern sector absorbing youth into active employment. At the same time, it was felt that education in the rural areas was not relevant to the needs of rural youth. Earlier plans had called for the establishment of rural education centers which would offer instruction which would be shorter in nature and be conducted within the centers. After ten years of operation, from 1961-71, it was realized that there had been no noticeable impact on participation rates or rural-urban migration and that the centers were at best tolerated and generally received with indifference.

The government opted for a training scheme for unschooled youth/ young farmers, who would be open to change in their communities, in other words, farmers capable of adopting an active rather than a passive approach to agriculture. These training schemes were to have a high level of community participation in the management of the training centers, in the recruitment of the youth who were to attend the three year program, in allocation of lands to be used for practical farming purposes by the youth and in the placement of the youth after they left the centers. In addition, local farmers were to serve as active participants in the training of the youth. In the course of their training program, the young farmers were to actually manage a farm on lands

allocated by the village advisory council. They learned new cultivation techniques, how to work with draft animals, animal husbandry, poultry raising, management of both seasonal and permanent agricultural work, and literacy and numeracy. The training during the course was both theoretical and practical, with the mornings given over to vocational instruction and the afternoons to basic education.

By the end of 1976-1977, there were 26 centers functioning. Teaching methods in use in the centers were basically active methods and importance was placed not on the quantity of information which the teachers could transmit but rather on the quality of knowledge which they imparted to the youth. The programs were taken out of the Ministry of Education and placed under the direction of the Ministry of Rural Development.

As the program developed, one of the major constraints was that a youth of 18 or 19 who left the program was still considered as a great asset to his family and therefore was unable to move into active agricultural practice on his own. For this reason, the centers began an extension program working with groups of center leavers to assist them in the further development of the skills they had developed during the training course.

Many programs for out-of-school youth in rural areas aim at developing managerial capacities in trainees, particularly in relation to either one crop, crafts or agricultural related production. The Training Project for Older Rural Youth run by the Social Laboratory Rural Training Programme of the College of Agriculture, University of the Philippines,

Los Baños, has as its objectives assisting farm youth in getting started and established in farming. In doing so, the laboratory attempts to develop systematic vocational education programs for farm youth. The project is an action research undertaking which develops two year terminal training courses for out-of-school farm youth. The emphasis of the programs is on mastery of technical skills and in the development of managerial abilities.

The trainees are required to spend a major portion of their time in well planned home projects to be carried out in two years under close supervision of an agricultural teacher. Production loans without collateral are made available to finance trainees' projects with the idea being that of assisting unemployed or underemployed farm youth in getting started in farming while undergoing training.

In a project in Cameroun, ZACC, the intention was to provide training in rural crafts and market gardening for both males and females between the ages of 12 and 25. Although women are traditionally involved in agriculture and crafts, in practice few girls have been involved in the programs since their inception. A recent project review states that counselling services for young females could help to overcome this problem and provide girls and their parents with an awareness of the potential of pursuing income generating activities.

In some out-of-school youth programs, trainees are encouraged to participate more actively through special incentives. One such program is the Rice Production Short Course offered by the Ifugao Agricultural College in the Philippines. Over the years, the College has conducted a number of short courses, particularly in rice production, for out-of-school

youth engaged in rice cultivation on family plots. The project involves training the youth in new technologies, including managerial aspects of rice production and harvesting. Training requires that the youth cultivate at least 1,000 square meters of rice land, two croppings a year on the school farm. For their part, the trainees get 75% of the crop from their parcel. Trainees come from remote villages and are housed at the school for the duration of the training.

In Colombia, SENA (Servicio Nacional de Aprendizaje) has considerable responsibility for the training of much of the country's skilled manpower needs. Although the vocational school system is quite strong in Colombia, SENA has led the way in upgrading small business skills. Its particular concern is with those who are already employed, thus offering upgrading of skills more than creation of new ones.

Ten different forms of training are offered by SENA. These include, among others, apprenticeship training for adolescents from 12 to 20: habilitación, or elementary training, for employed youth and adults who need pre-vocational training for a semi-skilled occupation; complementación, or complementary training, which is geared to adult semi-skilled workers who are deficient in particular skills necessary for their work; specialized training; accelerated training; technical cooperation; pre-vocational training; information and promotion; and training for prospective SENA instructors.

SENA, which was founded in 1957, began a special program in the late 1960's called Promoción Professional Popular-Rural (PPP-R) which provides short term, low cost skill training to farmers, day laborers on farms, small entrepreneurs and rural artisans in settings in their own

communities. Mobile training units are used to take the training into the villages. The PPP-R has an urban counterpart, the PPP-U, which is also geared to increasing employment opportunities through the improvement of skills.

Within the PPP-R and the PPP-U, instruction is practical rather than theoretical. Heavy reliance is placed on demonstrations rather than lectures. As emphasis is placed on the use of locally made tools and equipment, trainees can practice that which they have learned after completing the course.

Each course is seen as a self-contained unit, with courses varying in length from less than a month to no more than three months. Content of the courses is varied: agricultural crops, farm industries, livestock raising, handicrafts and mechanics as well as construction trades.

Transforming the Rural Economy and Environment

Much of what has been developed in the way of skills training programs for out-of-school youth in the past two decades has taken the form of offerings through permanent rural development centers. Because of their permanence, many of these centers, as will be noted from the examples below, see their task as more than the development of skills training programs.

The Tutu Rural Training Center, Fiji, offers training courses in two broad areas: personal growth and skills acquisition. All courses are for youth and young adults aged 19 and over. In the area of personal growth, which the Center refers to as "vision," the aim is to develop the trainee's confidence in his/her own ability to bring about the necessary

changes in their socio-economic situation for a satisfying life in the village. This training is Freirian in nature but less the political implications.

In the first year of training, the youth undertake a skill training component in agriculture or basic vocational training which involves projects both at the Center and in the community. Both are done voluntarily. During the second year, training is alternated with periods in the village. Also in that year, vocational training specialization is available. During home visits by staff, trainees are assisted in the development of their own productive enterprises.

Started as an experiment in education-centered community development and community-centered eudcation, Mintraniketan, in Kerela State, India, focuses on the integration of training, education and production. A complex of "production-cum-training centers" are in operation which feature programs in primary and secondary education, health, adult literacy, farming, crop and livestock enterprises, carpentry, dairy and poultry activities and handicrafts. Industrial, consumer and farmer cooperatives have also been established.

The Vieux Fort Agricultural Training Center, St. Lucia, is a relatively new enterprise which is designed as a one year practical vocational training program in agriculture. The training is to include instruction in agriculture, agro-business management and agro-industry related skills. It is projected that each graduate will be supplied with a plot of land upon graduation from the training program. The first year students are now in place and will, during the months ahead (1980), participate in the construction of the facilities at the center. The

objective of the project is to first provide vocational training in agriculture and then concentrate on assisting youth in securing employment in agricultural related activities.

Education and employment have always been closely linked in the Botswana Brigades' movement, with the initial Brigade having been started to assist in the building of Swaneng Hill School. Created as a response to a growing problem of increased numbers of school leavers and rural unemployment, the Brigades provide practical work experience within a framework of general education.

An outstanding feature of the Brigade Movement is that it shows that an educational program can provide employment for both trainees and recent graduates. Production units also attempt to meet the recurrent costs of training through employment activities within the community in which they are located. To date, some 3,500 trainees have gone through the program.

The backdrop for the development of the Brigades is an interesting one. Botswana, unlike many other former colonies, did not have a public school system at the time of independence in 1966. Education was largely controlled by outside organizations such as missionary groups. The situation is still one in which the largest portion of teaching staff is expatriate and is expected to remain so well intc the 1980's.

The Brigades were intended to provide an alternative to an educational system which catered to only a small portion of students, at least at the secondary level. The founders of the Brigades felt that the curriculum of the formal schools did not take into account the vocational skill needs of around 70% of primary school students who

could not go beyond grade 7 annually. Because of the lack of vocational training opportunities in Botswana, it was expected that the Brigades would also provide low cost basic vocational and technical training and thus generate much needed middle level skilled manpower.

In Van Rensburg's words, "We offer the young primary schoolleavers an on-the-job apprentice type training, in which trainees would work productively while they learned to build. They would undertake building for public and semi-public authorities at relatively low-cost. Their earnings as builders, while they learned, would cover costs." (Report from Swaneng Hill, 1974, p. 20)

In criticizing the free enterprise system in Botswana on grounds that present investment patterns were not conducive to employment creation, and that the present development strategy has the effect of limiting social and economic benefits to a small urban minority and neglects the larger rural population, the alternative approach adopted by Brigade leaders is essentially socialist in nature. Their strategy aims at the moblization of human resources, especially in rural areas, with the objective of mobilization being the creation of a large cooperative labor force which would work on the basis of self-help/self-reliance to help create a badly needed rural infrastructure. The Brigade leaders contend that self-help improves the participation of communities in decision making and goal setting and reduces former dependencies on the outside. In order to create employment, they have advocated that co-operatives be created which would be concerned with production as well as with capital formation, and the provision of social services through collective action. Such a strategy for rural development would utilize

labor intensive technology thus reducing capital investment required for job creation, therefore, making capital available for other areas.

The Indonesian Youth Villages were begun in 1976 for school dropouts between the ages of 17 and 24. To date, the project remains pilot in nature and is being carried out with four groups of youth. The program, which was begun at the initiative of youth is represented by the National Youth Committee (KMPI) as part of the transmigration scheme. The goals of the project include encouraging youth to stay in rural areas and promoting the integration of youth into the social and political life of the community.

Through the project, the youth establish their own villages of some 2,000 to 3,000 each and are responsible for the administration of the village. Pre-training in vocational areas is offered by the KMPI and consists of management skills, decision making, facilitator training, and provision of information about available government resources. The goal of each village is that youth will eventually be able to provide all necessary services for the village with only minimal support from the government. Each youth is given two hectares of land as part of the transmigration scheme and is encouraged to farm that land actively. Youth who participate in the scheme must be selected by their district youth clubs.

The Maison Familiales Rurales (MFR) of New Caledonia were created on the initiative of families who are aware of the essential role which they can play in the training of their children. The MFR's are run entirely by parents in the communities. Such an approach makes it possible for parents, youth, local leaders and elders to come together

to discuss and resolve important social and vocational issues, thus encouraging an action-oriented learning process. The MFR's follow a residential group approach for one week out of each three, thus facilitating practical vocational training in nearby small towns.

In the one week which is spent at the MFR's, youth work on the land and participate in personal observation exercises. The bulk of the training centers offer courses on rural living. The time spent in the community involves the youth in working on farms or in family businesses. Then, in another week at the MFR, youth pose questions arising out of the work of the previous two weeks, additional new knowledge is acquired, training is evaluated and training is offered in human relations and group living. This period is followed by another two weeks in the community, thus establishing firmly a pattern of work, reflection and further training.

Each training program includes basic education, technical and economic training (improving and upgrading of farming and economic skills at the village level to meet basic needs); and training in social studies and human relations, with practical application both in the organization of daily life in the MFR's and the responsibilities of local youth and adult organizations.

Training methods used include social activities, presentations by technicians, exchange of experiences, group work, study visits, case studies, vocational training courses, and courses in handicarafts and home improvements.

The experience of the MFR's has shown that the approach enables elders to play a more effective role in cooperation, professional, family

and community organizations. At the same time, it permits youth the opportunity to express their desires as to what kinds of training they would like. The increased participation of youth and their taking responsibility for their own training are considered to be among the most important features of the MFR program in New Caledonia.

The Barrio Development Schools, the Philippines, have grown out of needs to increase productivity in rural areas. The schools, which are co-sponsored by the local community and the federal government, offer a four year agricultural training program for out-of-school youth. Trainees live and work in their villages and spend half the day in supervised activities on their families' farms. A number of additional subject areas constitute the in-class portion of the program: business math, functional reading, farm economics, credit and savings, and health education and civics instruction.

In Papua New Guinea, the Village Development Centers, which are sponsored by the World Bank, represent an effort to establish a number of regional training centers to provide a one to two year vocational training program to primary school leavers.

The new programs are dependent upon the deployment of existing resources rather than large investments of money. Another major feature of the new programs is that they attempt to relate training more closely to local needs.

Although a prime interest is still in out-of-school youth, the reorganized centers offer vocational training to people of all ages. They are flexible in the location of training which is often conducted out in the village instead of in the center itself. The centers are used

for more than vocational training as they are the focal point of a larger, more comprehensive village development program. Greater efforts are now being made to coordinate training efforts locally and there is joint involvement of all agencies involved in the conduct of needs assessments upon which center programs are based.

In addition, the centers provide follow-up services in cooperation with field workers of other agencies in order to assist trainees with their newly acquired skills. Development agencies working in the South Pacific report that the centers represent one of the most important new experiments in rural training in that geographical area.

Pre-cooperative education is a part of the integrated rural development project directed by the Regional Action Center for Rural Development in Zou, Benin. Rural communities have formed together in voluntary associations to concentrate on the creation of cooperatives for selling harvests, for obtaining supplies and credits and for the general education of cooperative members.

In the Zou region of Benin, 90% of the active population is involved in agriculture. The industrial sector is just developing and most industrial related work is of the agro-business nature and centers around the processing of cotton, the major crop grown in the area. Fifty percent of the population of the region is under the age of 20, and about 35% of school aged children are in school. The area is characterized by a healthy amount of rural to urban migration.

Within the pre-cooperative movement, three areas of special training exist: for the secretaries of the cooperatives, for members of the governing councils of the co-ops and for ordinary members of the

organizations. Of particular note is the training given to the co-operative secretaries, all of whom are chosen from the 18 to 25 age group. Most of them are primary school completers or armed forces veterans who are literate. As their work is administrative in nature, literacy is a pre-requisite for being selected to the position. Their training consists of three sessions in which they review basic literacy and numeracy skills necessary for the tasks, study cooperative management and extension practices. The training coincides with periods of heavy agricultural activity.

Evaluation of the program has shown that the on-the-job training particularly that in management and accounting skills has been the most effective of the three skill areas taught to the youth who work as co-operative secretaries.

The efforts to provide skills training for out-of-school youth have been impressive in Jamaica, but there are those who say they are still insufficient. The original Youth Camps, initially established to train rural youth have attracted both regional and international attention. These establishments have been modified to become Youth Community Training Centres and some corresponding urban analogues have been developed. These centers offer young people basic education and training in a particular skill in preparation for assuming positions in the world of work. Those participants who successfully conclude the skills training are admitted for further training into the Industrial Training Centers of which there are nearly 50, all of which are operated by the Ministry of Youth, Sports and Community Development. These centers are intended to fill the need for workmen/women possessing skills

required for the building industry, industrial and commercial establishments and agricultural enterprises.

Vocational skills development was offered in the areas of carpentry, construction and building, electrical maintenance, welding, barbering and cooking, with the most popular courses being those that lead to the highest paying jobs. In vocational skills as well as agriculture, learning combined with practice was the basic instructional method.

There are a number of specialized programs which, much as the ones presented above, defy classification into groupings as solely rural or urban responses to the employment needs of out-of-school youth. In the paragraphs which follow, the further diversity of out-of-school youth employment programs is illustrated.

Entrepreneurial and Managerial Skills Training Programs

The Entrepreneur Development Programme, a six year old program developed and administered by the Xavier Institute of Social Service, Ranchi, India, was established in reaction to the decreasing numbers of rural entrepreneurs, the increasing dependence of rural villagers on nearby larger towns, and general economic depression of one of the tribal areas of India. The primary objectives of the program are to remove factors constraining the further development of village economies through the training of rural youth in small entrepreneurship training. Integral to this training is the development of managerial skills necessary for conducting business in rural areas. Through this training, it was felt that opportunities for self-employment were increased and at the same time,

the introduction of economic, technological and agricultural information would contribute to increased self-reliance and resourcefulness.

Training at the Institute is done in small groups, with the mix of training content varying with each group. Training consists of skills development in specific areas such as tailoring, grocery shop keeping, radio repairs, food processing, cycle repairs and the provision of services. In addition, youth are given a healthy dose of managerial skills training and they have an on-the-job period where they put both the technical skills of the trade and the managerial skills to use. In most instances, the on-the-job training is conducted on an apprenticeship basis with shopkeepers or practicing entrepreneurs in nearby towns functioning as on-the-job trainers. In such a way, an attempt is made to incorporate the community into the training of the youth.

The Institute feels strongly that the best training is that which utilizes traditional methods of skills instruction to pass along trades. Program developers see this as being a cost conscious approach as well as one which is both time saving and down to earth given the realities of life in rural India. In addition, it is felt that such an approach to training does not lead to inflated expectations. But, this kind of training is not without its disadvantages and suffers from criticism of being kuchcha, or half baked, training, in that it sometimes lacks a scientific approach and offers, at best, a provisional approach.

In most cases, the training lasts no longer than six months, thus allowing trainees to see immediate possibilities for employment and benefits from their training. Early in the training, trainees participate in a general market survey of the area, a process which introduces them to

basic managerial concepts. Later, and as a transition from trainee to entrepreneur, they will participate in an individual market survey and the preparation of a project report, or statement of intent. In the market survey, which each candidate must undertake himself, attempts are made to survey the demand for the services or product which the youth plans to market in a number of villages. Each trainee attempts to calculate the volume of the demand for the product or service, thus estimating if there is sufficient demand for the proposed business.

After the completion of the market survey, the trainee proceeds to formulate a project proposal in which he outlines the skills or product which he is going to market. The Institute considers this to be a kind of certificate which the young entrepreneur writes and gives to himself, an action which is taken to mean that the youth has grasped the basic ideas of entrepreneurship and the skills necessary for becoming an entrepreneur. With the project proposal formulated, the youth then estimates the amount of investment needed and the profits and benefits which can be expected from the investment. The necessary inputs are enumerated--in terms of space, equipment, working capital, raw materials--and the expected output in terms of sales of finished products, employment generated and surpluses made.

On the basis of the project proposal, the youth then seeks out funding for the undertaking. In most cases, trainees at the Institute have been able to finance some 50-70% of their projects with family funds or money received through friends or savings clubs. The Institute has also been instrumental in identifying banks which are willing to make credit available to the youths.

Equally important as the funding to get started are the support services offered by the Institute. Youth participate in a well developed follow-up program which involves visits from Institute staff, the preparation of periodic evaluations of their own work, technical assistance from the staff of the Institute, and benefits from being a member of the Institute's network of linkages to other entrepreneurs and other institutions from which raw materials can be obtained.

APPENDIX III

ENTREPRENEURIAL AND MANAGEMENT SKILLS TRAINING

TRAINING OF VILLAGE LEVEL ENTREPRENEURS
TRAINING DESIGN AND CONTENT*

Training Design and Content:

The training design which is discussed below is that which has been developed over a five year period by the Xavier Institute of Social Services, Ranchi, India.

I. Selection of candidates

1. preselection motivation: activities carried out by the training institution in conjunction with link agencies and local organizations, e.g., village councils.
2. pre-training motivation: a period characterized by attempts to "sell" the program to the community in general as well as to individual youth.
3. inviting of applications: done through local village councils and involves youth interested first being screened by own communities who give their reactions to proposed trade for development.
4. screening of applicants: applicants travel to training institute for academic testing to ascertain literacy and numeracy levels/aptitude testing/administration of thematic apperception test (TAT) and in some cases manual dexterity tests as well as an oral interview.

II. Motivational training

1. Initial motivational training course: one week intensive training of motivational reinforcement in which candidates are helped to establish goals for self/encouraged to undertake risks (a basic element of the entrepreneurial experience) (Motivational reinforcement is also part of post-training activities of Institute through visits, newsletter, seminars and meetings, and entrepreneurial associations)

III. Managerial training

1. Clarification of what managerial abilities an entrepreneur needs in order to carry out business

   Includes instruction in the following:
   .planning ability

*Source: Xavier Institute of Social Service. Training Village Entrepreneurs: Guidelines for Development Workers. Ranchi, India: Xavier Institute, 1980.

..financial ability
..social ability
..orientation toward achievement
..general education and assimilation of information
..business effectiveness
..technical up-to-dateness
..ethical awareness

Training content:

Entrepreneur and His Role in Society
Communications, Basic Concepts and Skills
Principles and Practices of Managment
Business Mathematics
Accounting
Costing
Storekeeping and Purchasing
Marketing and Sales
Taxes and Laws relating to Shops and Establishments
Information about Government Infrastructures, Facilities and Commercial Banks
Market Survey
Project Preparation
Group Discussions on Practicum
Visits by Entrepreneurs
Games

IV. Skills Training and Placement for Practicum in Management

Training in Practical Skills: care is taken so that entrepreneurs in training receive instruction in both traditional ways of business and more theorectical aspects, particularly of skills training. Training conducted by small shopkeepers and through field work and visits.

V. Market Survey and Project Report

General survey: all trainees participate in a general survey at the beginning of the training session to familiarize them with principles of management and market planning.
Market survey: each trainee must undertake a market survey himself in a restricted area in order to find out the demand for the product or service he wants to market/from this survey it should be clear whether or not the proposed business will be viable.

Project proposal: is a statement of intent by the trainee that he wishes to undertake a specific business in a particular area/the choice of business is justified on the basis of information gathered during the market survey/scope and demand for a particular business and the volume of turnover are projected in the proposal/estimates amount of investment needed/proposal then serves as the basis for negotiation of bank loan/credits

VI. Financing and Follow-up, Institutional Linkages

Financing: each entrepreneur is encouraged to invest own or family money as well as secure "seed" money from bank/credit association on the basis of project proposal
Each youth must work through the financing end of the undertaking as it is felt that this is one of the crucial areas of the entrepreneurial activity
Follow-up: provides feedback, offers entrepreneurs valuable practical tips, and assures that trainees make good use of training/follow-up provided by small business extension agents and institution at large
Institutional Linkages: provision of entrepreneurial associations for guidance pruposes, the provision of raw materials and marketing assistance, and credit assistance
Group Entrepreneurial Training: institutional linkages and follow-up activities are geared to working toward group entrepreneurial activities, i.e., income generating activities undertaken by a group/ number of local institutions mobilized to bring about such training, especially co-operatives, and through the use of individual entrepreneurs who have already participated in EDP activities.

Equator Community Education Project*

Introduction

The Equator Community Education Project, in Kenya, is a new program for out-of-school unemployed youth and represents a reaction to problems observed in the Village Polytechnics. The organizers of the Equator Project contend that the Village Polytechnics, although a considerable success, have nonetheless suffered from a number of problems. Like the formal school system, the Village Polytechnics are restricted in terms of the numbers of youth they can serve. Only about 5,000 youth are admitted to the Village Polytechnic program out of a school leaver population averaging 150,000 every year.

The main courses offered by the Village Polytechnics (VP), i.e. tailoring, farming, carpentry, masonry, motor mechanics, electrical wiring, home economics, metal work etc. are seen as too structured to respond to all the needs of a community, and the skills by themselves do not help the target population to create employment where none exists. Another weakness of the VP movement is seen in its reinforcment of the stratification existing in the socio-economic system with youth from relatively wealthy families

*Information on the Equator Community Education Project has been supplied by Tom Mulusa and Alice Waka, project consultants.

having easier access to VP training. Children from poor families either cannot afford the fees charged for VP courses, or cannot afford to pay for the basic education required for entry to VP training programs.

These conditions have served as the backdrop for the Equator Community Education Project. The project is located in the most densely populated rural area of Kenya where population density is over 500 per sq. km., or about 1,500 per sq. mile. Average land holdings per family of six people is slightly less than one hectare. As cultivable land is over-worked and badly managed, productivity is low. The youthful, able bodied and "educated" population tends to move out of the area in search of employment and settlement in urban areas or the less densely populated areas of the country. The project area is thus caught up in a poverty vicious circle because: the area is poor, productive workers tend to drift away from it, and because of emigration of productive workers, the area becomes poorer.

The first stage of the project will cover six sub-locations in Vihiga and Hamisi Divisions of Kakamega district, i.e. Buyonga, Gisambai, Jepkoyai, Tigoi, Gimarakwa and Gamalenga. The population is about 25,000.

Purpose

The purpose of the Equator Community Education Project is to

develop a broadly based program of education and managerial training designed in collaboration with the target population. Local Village Polytechnics will be used as centers for skill training, but where possible alternative institutions and facilities will be used, and VP programs will be decentralized to provide for maximum accessibility to the target community.

Program Objectives

The overall objective of Equator Community Education Project is to develop an innovative educational design which will sensitize and raise the consciousness of the target population, and to provide skill training and management studies for gainful employment. Graduates of the program who do not obtain employment should be able to devise ways of earning a living honourably within their community.

Program objectives include:

a. providing vocational and managerial skills training to adolescents, with emphasis on skills immediately useful in the local community;

b. introducing into the community new methods of cultivation and animal husbandry, suitable for small scale, intensive farming; and

c. bringing relevant basic education to the adult population of the selected area.

The project is funded by the Bernad Van Leer Foundation and sponsored locally by the National Christian Council of Kenya (NCCK).

The NCCK is the main link between the project and the funding agency.

At the local level, there is a management committee consisting of staff chiefs, assistant chiefs, heads of local schools, religious leaders, and representatives of participants, amateurs and master craftsmen.

Project activities are to be built around three areas: (1) skill training for adolescents, (2) reinforcement of traditional extension with more systematically planned programs in cultivation, animal husbandry and rural production generally and (3) basic adult education.

Plans call for a motivational campaign in the project area through a series of workshops for key persons from the project area. The workshops will (1) reinterpret the objectives of the project, (2) attempt to articulate the needs of the community in the light of the project objectives, (3) identify current bottlenecks to development and (4) suggest possible strategy for accelerated development. The proposed workshop will not forestall the need assessment proposed for participants in the project description. The need assessment done with key persons will be general and will apply to the whole project area, while the exercises to be done by the participants will be of a more specific nature--focusing on the needs and priorities of a given interest group.

After the publicity workshops key people--church leaders,

local administrators, extension workers, village administrators known as "liguru" or "ligutu", school teachers etc.--will be involved in explaining the objectives of the project to the target population. The next step in the process of implementation will be to organize public meetings at the level of "ligutu" (liguru) to explain the objectives of the project and to agree on the process of participation and the strategy for getting all the people in the village involved in development projects.

Project Activities

The project falls into three overlapping activities corresponding to the project objectives stated above i.e. skill training for adolescents, farming for the whole community and basic education for adults.

Skill Training

Participants in skill training will be failures or those who have been branded failures in the formal education program. They have virturally come to believe that their fate is destined to poverty, unemployment and a poor quality of life. They have very low motivation and self confidence. In the same vein, society does not expect much out of primary school leavers. Parents are not motivated to spend resources on the training of youth who have not made it in school. To get some of the unemployed youth into training programs, their parents and the whole community must be

sensitized to the value of the proposed program of education and training.

Participants will at the outset of the program be given a chance to try out a number of crafts for at least three months before they commit themselves to one of the training programs. Skill training will be complimented with a broad basic education intended to reinforce the confidence of the participants and impart skills in management studies. The final list of skills to be offered will be determined by participants and is likely to include wood industry, metalwork, mechanics, electrical work, building, textile industry, business education, home management and elements of agriculture and other forms of rural production.

Master craftsmen who will be responsible for training the youth will be encouraged to set up production units to serve the local community. If the industry or production unit does not prove viable, it will have to be reviewed or discarded along with the training program. The process of establishing or confirming the viability of an industry will form part of the most essential training for the participants who will need to make feasibility studies before launching production units of their own.

Agricultural Activities

All rural people in the project area, including professionals and businessmen, are involved in subsistence farming. In fact a number of studies show that the most productive farmers (progressive farmers) within the area are those who can raise funds for investment in farming from salaried employment or business. The strategy in this project is to bridge the gap between the progressive farmers and those normally

referred to as the laggards. At the moment the gap between the two categories continues to open up as the progressive farmers become more efficient and productive, while the poor farmers become less productive and poorer.

Each group will make a list of the skills and knowledge they already use on their farms to avoid wastage of time on skills and information which is already familiar to participants. The range of activities under agriculture will include production of food crops, cash crops and intensive animal production. Given the shortage of land in the project area, participants will try to develop ways of keeping enough animals for local supply of milk and other animal products on the land available.

Basic Education

Basic education activities will partly emerge out of the publicity workshops and partly out of the skills and knowledge gaps identified while implementing agricultural activities. Basic education will therefore include skills in reading and writing, farming skills, health and nutrition, family education, etc.

Summary of What the Different Organizations Want to Know and for What Purposes

Organizations	Area of Interest	Purpose
Funding Agency	Whether the objectives of the project are followed	To confine project activities to what is expressly stated in the agreement
	-Implementation process) -Sequencing of activities) -Range of activities)	To monitor implementation of the project
	-Adherence to agreed evaluation procedure	To decide whether the project should continue and what funding will be required for the future
	-Experience gained and material developed during the project	For publication and/or dissemination to other projects funded by the agency
	-Budget and financial control	To monitor expenditure
	-The target groups served by the project	To determine the extent to which the project benefits the target population specified in the agreement
	-Unplanned outcomes	To be considered for future plans and projects
National Christian Council of Kenya	Same as for the Funding Agency	-To advise the project management -To forward all the information received to the funding agency -To use some of the information and materials developed in other NCCK supported projects

Organizations	Area of Interest	Purpose
Project Management	All the areas of interest under Funding Agency	-To make reports to the funding agency and the sponsor -To review the goals and strategies of the project on an ongoing basis to make adjustments accordingly -To justify implementation of the second stage of the project
	Economic and social developments within the project area	-To assess the effectiveness of the project in changing the lives of the target population
	Development of the capacity for implementation of the second part of the project	For estimating the level of staffing required for a larger project
Office of The President: Government Ministries	-The benefits derived from the project by the target population -The design or methods used	For possible replication in other parts of the country

Programme of Action

First Month	-Recruitment of Project Director and animators
	-Establishment of project office
Second Month	-Orientation of Director and animators (Director to attend a course at the Institute of Adult Studies and if possible to visit a similar project outside the country.)
Third Month	-Development seminars for key persons; assistant chiefs; local councillors; church leaders; school teachers
	-Recruitment of study groups and students selection for skill training programmes
	-Groups identify their project objectives
	-Identification and training of group leaders and development of handouts and teaching materials
	-Start of basic education
Fourth Month	-Basic education
	-Preparation for implementation of agricultural projects
Fifth Month	-Basic education
	-Preparation and implementation of agricultural projects
	-Setting up a farmers cooperative
Sixth Month	-Internal review of development seminars; skill training; basic education; agricultural projects and training of animators and group leaders
Seventh to Twelfth Months	-Further motivation of community through development seminars
	-Training and materials development workshops for animators and group leaders
	-Supervision of agricultural projects, basic education programmes, skill training, etc.
	-End of the year evaluation (internal)
	-Planning workshops for the second year

IMPLEMENTING QUESTIONS, INDICATORS INSTRUMENTS AND CONSTRAINTS

Implementing Questions	Indicators	Instruments/Method	Possible Constraints
Does the project adhere to agreed objectives?	Does the project have -training for adolescents -Agriculture -animal husbandry -basic adult education	-Observation -Use of registers -Recorders showing production activities	Since the project will involve rural production, it will be difficult to draw firm boundaries between what is and what is not in the project.
What are the implementation procedures?	-publicity workshops -public meetings -number of groups formed -training workshops for group leaders	-records of participants at meetings -group registers	Perhaps all group leaders will not be able to keep comprehensive records. This will depend on what sort of persons are elected to lead.
What is the sequence of implementing project activities?	Time line of activities	Comparison between the planned sequence and the implementation sequence	There may be problems in trying to synchronize activities or to start all groups on one activity at the same time.
What are the main elements of the project?	-Training programs for facilitators and group leaders -Agricultural activities -Basic education programs -skill training programs -production activities	records kept by the project main office	In agricultural activities there will be need to define project activities very carefully to avoid false claims or leaving out legitimate activities.
To what extent are agreed evaluation procedures followed?	Frequency of reporting to the Sponsor and the Funding Agency	Inspection of project documents and records (project description, financial statements, correspondence with the Sponsor and Funding Agency, Agreement documents	The agreement recognizes that there may be need to modify project objectives during the implementing stage. Some needs and outcomes may not be easy to identify.
What experience is gained, and materials developed, during the project?	-Training manuals for the facilitators, group leaders, project participants, etc. -project descriptions -course evaluation -reports	Project records	Some of the interaction between group leaders and the groups may be difficult to document fully.
Is budget and financial control effective?	-Bank statements -Auditors reports -Estimates	Project records	- - - - -
What groups are participating in the project?	-number peer group -background information (e.g. age, education, occupation) -distribution of participants in the project area	-Project records -interviews -questionnaires	-there is bound to be considerable overlap between groups, e.g. one individual could belong to several interest groups -during data collection distortions are bound to occur
Are there any unplanned outcomes?	-outcomes not stated in the project objectives	Review of project objectives against outcomes.	How does one identify unplanned outcomes?

The indicators and instruments listed here only represent the last step towards writing an evaluation report. As the purpose of this project is to involve participants in all stages of project development, there will be many problem solving and decision making exercises during the implementation stages which will use some of the following methods of collecting data, in modified forms if necessary.

Brainstorming

Itemized Response Technique

Q Sort

Nominal Response Technique

An attempt has been made in this paper to avoid being prescriptive and rigid. Equator Community Education Project is supposed to be participatory. The target population will be involved in all the stages of planning and implementation. It is therefore not possible to go through the whole process of evaluation. From the point of view of the project management the steps outlined above should form a firm foundation for detailed planning and project implementation.

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